

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 17, 1881.

The Week.

THE Russian Nihilists have at last attained the object for which they have so long striven with such remarkable persistence and ingenuity. They have succeeded in killing the Czar while driving in the public street, surrounded by his escort, by throwing glass bombs charged with dynamite. The first smashed his carriage, and the second, after he had alighted, literally tore him to pieces. He died within three hours, and his eldest son succeeded him as Alexander III. without disturbance. The two previous attempts to destroy him—first by mining the railroad over which he was to pass, and then by blowing up his family dining-room in his own palace—displayed marvellous enterprise, patience, and ingenuity as well as courage. But neither of them can, on the whole, be compared to this last one. The glass ball to hold the dynamite has probably been invented during the past winter, and seems to have been a very perfect contrivance for its purpose, but the most remarkable and novel feature of the affair is, after all, the provision of a reserve man to throw a second ball after the first had produced confusion and stopped the carriage. In most if not all of these attempts at assassination the conspirators rely, and have to rely, on a single shot or stroke. This is usually as much as the kind of courage which can be commanded for such attempts is equal to. But here a second assassin seems to have coolly watched the effect of his confederate's fire and seen him arrested, and still had nerve enough left to throw his own ball at the proper moment with deadly effect. The murder furnishes a fresh illustration not only of the increased power which science has put into the hands of criminals, but of the difficulty of escape for any man, no matter how well guarded, when another man has made up his mind to kill him or perish. As matters stand, it would seem as if a sovereign whose assassination is determined upon could only secure absolute safety out-of-doors by having both houses and streets cleared wherever he passed.

Alexander II. was said to have been for years a melancholy man, and there are few things either in history or poetry more tragic than his fate. The evils with which he has for twenty-five years been contending were largely his father's legacy. The isolation and the iron rule which Nicholas imposed on the Empire cut it off from the great wave of social and political progress which passed over the rest of Europe between 1825 and 1855, and his savage and brutal government made the discontent which it bred savage and brutal also. Alexander has thus had to face the effect of half-culture and partial emancipation on men made ferocious by a servitude which comparison with other countries made peculiarly galling, and which has given to his reforms and concessions the air not of boons or graces, but of imperfect and paltry compensation for past sufferings. Nevertheless, no man of his generation has labored more conscientiously for his country and his kind. His emancipation of the serfs was a work large enough and beneficent enough for three autocrats, and which few, if any, constitutional statesmen would have dared to face. He settled the land question in Poland, too, even more effectively than in Russia, and employed in it two statesmen, Milutine and Tcherkasski, of whom, for breadth of view, for tenderness of conscience, for devotion to duty, as well as for administrative ability, any country in the world might be proud. All such men found him a faithful and unflinching supporter. And yet all his services, and all his high ambition, and all his eagerness to bear in their fullest extent the burdens, both moral and political, put on him by his station, now look as if they were intended simply to make the mockery of fate more bitter and effective. He has for three or four years experienced in the depths of a palace, and under the guard of a large army, the sensations of a hunted fugitive, and has been reminded nearly every week that to a portion of his subjects—how large he could

not tell—he was as odious as if he had been a Domitian or a Louis XV., and he has now perished most miserably and most horribly in the streets of his own capital, at the hands of men who probably could hardly pay for their night's lodging, or could tell where it would be.

The quietus which General Melikoff's policy was supposed to have put on the Nihilists has been clearly deceptive, and the reason undoubtedly is that its conciliatory features disappeared outside of St. Petersburg. In the provinces the governors-general were armed with absolute power, and they exercised it under the savage traditions of the old régime, by inflicting those atrocious punishments for which Russia has always been famous. During the past winter they have been banishing to Siberia swarms of persons of both sexes on mere suspicion of holding revolutionary opinions, and banishment to Siberia is a frightful penalty which makes men desperate, especially when inflicted without telling the criminal what his offence is or who accuses him. Most of these exiles, or at least a large proportion of them, have been students, and numerous stories of suicide among the unfortunates after reaching their destination have come back, and, whether true or false, have come to stimulate the thirst for vengeance among their friends and companions at home. A feeble attempt at remonstrance has been made by the nobles in one province, and by the Zemstov, or departmental assembly, in another, but without effect. Now, there is one thing the human race has in Christendom apparently got beyond, and that is submission to absolutely arbitrary power. The men of our time will not accept punishment without trial or proof, and the Nihilists are a very unfortunate class to select for it, considering that they are already in a state of "moral insanity." They cannot be cured by simple brute force, and their success in killing the Czar will, undoubtedly, make them readier than ever to oppose ferocity to cruelty. At Kiev four men were arrested only three weeks ago when preparing to blow up the arsenal, and in the same place a "Workingman's Union" has been discovered which makes murder and arson its two principal means of elevating the laborer. People cannot be hanged or shot out of such delusions as these.

The composition of the Cabinet seems, on the whole, to be marked by considerable skill. Mr. Blaine has been appeased and provided for in a place where he has little patronage and a good deal of dignity, and a fair chance of some of those little sensations in which he delights. Mr. Windom will satisfy the inflationists and silver-men of the Northwest. As long as he is in the Treasury they will feel assured that the designs of the "gold bugs" and "money kings" of New York and Europe on the currency of the United States and on "the debtor class" will be foiled. His opinions might make him dangerous to the public credit and financial stability if the President were a man like General Grant or Mr. Hayes, who had given no special attention to this class of questions. But nobody is more familiar with them than General Garfield, and we may hold it certain that he will be substantially his own minister of finance, and that no action will be taken at the Treasury on any important matter without his initiative and full approval. Mr. MacVeagh is a full concession to the Independents everywhere, and to the anti-Cameron party in Pennsylvania. Mr. Lincoln's appointment is at first sight somewhat ridiculous, but there is, nevertheless, a good deal of shrewdness in it. He was a supporter of General Grant at Chicago, and is thus a sort of "recognition" for Logan. Then his character is above reproach, and he takes charge of a Department in which there is really but little business or responsibility, and in which he can give Logan very little if any assistance, even if he were so disposed. But what is of more importance than all these things, his appointment will touch the imagination of that very large body of what may be called the poetic Republicans, who have no strong views in particular about any questions of contemporary politics, but to whom the memory of the war is still very deep and sacred, and who will be moved by the appearance on the scene in a place of honor and trust of a son of Abraham Lincoln.

The promotion—for so it may be considered—of Mr. James, however, is the master-stroke of the whole performance, particularly when supplemented by the appointment of Mr. Pearson, the assistant-postmaster in New York, to succeed him. Mr. James represents civil-service reform in the best way. In fact, he was designated for the Postmaster-Generalship by every kind of test known in business. This is not the best of it, however, by any means. He is, in the old system of "recognition," charged to Mr. Conkling, and Mr. Conkling has to accept him as his "man" in the Cabinet, while in reality his recent official career must be somewhat odious to Mr. Conkling and injurious to "the party." Could the henchmen have got one of their own men in his place they would have considered his transfer to Washington a genuine triumph for themselves, as they would at once have gone to work "rotating" and assessing the clerks and letter-carriers on the old plan, and have undone all Mr. James's work. Mr. Pearson's appointment has, however, removed all chance of this, and makes the change a real victory for the friends of good government.

The temporary advantage of the Democrats in the Senate, arising from the four vacancies caused by the Cabinet appointments and by the death of Mr. Carpenter, was improved as it was safe to say the Republicans would have improved it—by going into caucus and arranging the committees on the assumption of a permanent Democratic majority, however slender. The Republicans, on the contrary, refused to be a party to the arrangement by making the usual nominations for their side, and insisted that their opponents were bound to wait till the vacancies were filled, or to "pair" with the absentees. This may have been according to the law of genuine Senatorial courtesy, but the Democrats professed great anxiety that the business of the session should get on, and the President's nominations be acted upon without delay. Whether they could enforce their decision depended upon the course of the "independent" Senator David Davis, of Illinois, and the "Readjuster" Senator William Mahone, of Virginia, neither of whom took part in the caucus, though both were allotted places as Democrats—the former, the chairmanship of the Judiciary Committee. On Friday, Judge Davis declined this honor, in a carefully prepared review of his political history. He was unexpectedly elected by a coalition of Democrats with Independent Republicans in a numerical proportion which made the "trust" committed to him more Democratic than Republican. Consequently, while resigning none of his opinions, he should help maintain the existing organization of the Senate, for which he disclaimed all responsibility, without accepting honors from either side. He drew a touching picture of the delicacy of his position, told of his having put away ambition, and bespoke a fair trial for the new Administration.

While Judge Davis's action had been anticipated, it was "in the air" that General Mahone would play the Judas; and when on Monday, after Mr. Pendleton's cautious lead in the attempt to execute the programme of the caucus, the Republicans and General Mahone voted in favor of an executive session, there was no longer any doubt of a bargain with the Virginian. This was confirmed by Mr. Conkling's confident intimation that the Democrats would find themselves in a minority if they pushed matters. There was a last resort, which could not possibly succeed, but which Senator Hill, of all men, undertook. In an hysterical appeal to some one's honor he denied that any one elected as a Democrat would betray his constituents; asked wildly who was the man, and so danced from incredulity to challenge, and from challenge to incredulity, until General Mahone got up and with much spirit and directness said he was the man, and that he had not been elected as a Democrat, and that he would not stand Mr. Hill's insinuations and censorship. Mr. Hill was also punished with the plantation whip wielded by Mr. Hoar, and although he pretended to be very glad he had "brought out" the Senator from Virginia, his joy was not generally shared by his colleagues. The terms of the bargain are unknown, but it is reported, says the *Times*, that General Mahone "will vote for Mr. George C. Gorham for Secretary and a Virginia Readjuster for Sergeant-at-Arms." So we may look for Republican majorities on the

Committees, a ratting Republican back in his old place, Vice-President Arthur ruling on Mr. Conkling's points of order, and General Mahone dispensing Federal patronage in the Old Dominion.

Seven amendments to the State constitution were voted upon in Indiana on Monday. Among them the only ones of other than local importance were those abolishing the October election and fixing the residential qualification of voters. There was a light vote, and the amendments were adopted in the virtual absence of opposition. Rumors of an intention of the Democrats to contest the legality of the re-submission of the question to the people are probably idle. They were themselves responsible for it, and they appear to have either voted for the amendments or abstained from voting at all. The country is, of course, to be congratulated upon the result, which does a good deal to remove the temptation to such achievements as the Dorsey dinner was given to signalize. If there were no "October States" whose "moral effect" is so important to the cause in November, the efforts of Dorsey would have to be diffused over the entire Union, instead of concentrated upon one community, in which case he would probably be found futile, and, if not discarded, would get no more dinners. Probably a large part of the voters of Indiana regret the change, but for reasons which it was a delicate matter to make public enough to base any "organized opposition" upon them. The provision securing a term of residence in the State as a necessary preliminary to voting, will doubtless check the "colonization" from Kentucky of which so much is always said by the defeated party after each election.

The Wall Street markets during the week were dull. The Treasury bought \$5,000,000 of bonds at market quotations, and this released nearly enough money, together with what was disbursed in other ways, to make up the loss which the banks had suffered in their efforts to escape from the effects of the Refunding Bill when the prospect seemed to be that the bill would become a law. The Cabinet decided that the national banks which had during the excitement given up their note circulation could not, on a redeposit of bonds, recover the lawful money which they had placed in the Treasury in order to redeem their notes, but that if they wished to regain their note circulation it must be without reference to the old circulation abandoned. While there were two sides to the question, the decision of the Cabinet was generally approved as sound. The money market was "easy" during the week, and about \$1,750,000 gold were imported, and the rates for foreign exchange at the close of the week, although higher than of late, still warranted gold imports. The severe storms in the Western States again blockaded some of the principal railroads there, and it is now clear that the spring trade will have the disadvantage of a short season. There was a decline in the price of cotton during the week. The Cotton Exchange has brought speculation down to a point of refinement which enables all to speculate, from the bootblack to the millionaire; in fact, it may be said to be a "Gold Room with a bucket-shop attachment." The price of gold before resumption affected every one in trade—some more and some less. The price of cotton affects industrial interests and a majority of the dealers in textile fabrics. It is, therefore, unfortunate that a staple article should be subject to the variations of the speculative mood. The price of silver bullion ranged in London between 52½d. and 52¼d. per ounce, the last being the closing price, and the bullion value here of the buzzard dollar at the close was about \$0.8681.

The Republican party in Boston seems likely, it must be said to the amusement of people in other parts of the country, to be rent in twain by a conflict over Mr. Schurz. If he were still in office, or likely soon to be in office again, or if he were "in training for the Presidency," or if the Ponca affair had not yet been settled, there would be something serious about the row. But as matters stand it has something the air, at this distance, of the famous feud between the "Four-year-olds and the Three-year-olds" in the County Limerick. A number of Boston gentlemen of the best standing, both socially and politically, have asked Mr. Schurz to a dinner on the 22d, as an expression of their

high opinion of the administration of his office during the last four years. This is taken by the Ponca philanthropists and by the Grant Stalwarts to be a covert denial of his guilt in the Ponca matter, and an indirect reproof of the course of the two Massachusetts Senators thereanent, and has roused their deep indignation. So they have as a counter-demonstration sent an invitation, with six hundred signatures, to the two Senators, asking them to address a meeting on the Ponca affair. In the meantime the Ponca papers are rising to the height of the occasion by comparing the action of the Schurz party to the conduct of the Tories in Boston before the tea-riot, and also to the conduct of the Hunkers in inviting Daniel Webster to dinner after the 7th of March speech. They have one very ruffianly Grant organ among them, which, however, takes no pains to keep up the Ponca disguise, and "goes for" Mr. Schurz in the regular old style, as a "Hessian," a "disorganizer," a "Dutchman," a "fraud," and "a failure." The situation is an awkward one for the two Senators, owing to their failure to take up the Ponca case until after Mr. Schurz had been vainly trying for three years to get Congress to deal with it. They allowed themselves to be carried too far by the fury of the philanthropists and Grant men, and consequently made onslaughts on Mr. Schurz which were plainly absurd, and they have now in some manner to extricate themselves, but of course can hardly do it with dignity. The hatred of Mr. Schurz among the regular Machine men is wonderfully bitter, but they make a mistake in charging him with anything but being born in Germany. This he cannot deny, while other accusations are mere abuse. Mr. Dawes used it with telling effect when he showed that Schurz probably learnt to move the Poncas against their will from Bismarck and the Kaiser.

Mr. Schurz was invited to address a meeting here on the Indian question on Tuesday evening, on behalf mainly of the admirable experiment in Indian education which General Armstrong is making at Hampton, Va. The invitation was signed by sixty men as eminent and as representative in their respective walks as those who have invited him to dinner in Boston on the 22d, and they said that they invited him recognizing "not only his official relation to the Indians but his humane interest in their welfare," and the hall was crowded. Now, we should like some of the highly respectable persons who have allowed themselves to become conspicuous in denouncing him in terms of scandalous abuse in Boston to ask themselves how it happens that this Ponca fury against him is confined to Boston, and how it is that the rest of the country looks on with mingled surprise and amusement. They will hardly venture to maintain that humane interest in Indians is confined to that city, or that in no other are there any persons perspicacious enough to detect wicked secretaries in murder, mendacity, and fraud, and bold enough to denounce them when found out. What, then, does it all mean?

The American Commissioners to the Monetary Conference are Messrs. Evarts, Thurman, and Timothy O. Howe, and they are to sail early in April, and the Conference will be held on the 19th of that month. None of these gentlemen has, we believe, any special acquaintance with the subject; but this is probably of little consequence, as they will doubtless on their arrival put themselves in the hands of Mr. George Walker and M. Cernuschi, who will give them their brief. It has been inferred in Europe from Mr. Evarts's appointment that the United States Government thinks the Conference a very serious matter, and this has led within the past week to very emphatic warnings from the Marquis of Hartington and Prince Bismarck that the participation of England and Germany in the Conference is not to be looked on even as a sign of willingness to go back to bi-metallism. There is no reason in the world why they should even think of doing so. The English gold standard has worked perfectly for sixty years, and the Germans are in no serious trouble with theirs. The two nations which are in "a fix" about their standard are France and the United States, and it is all owing to their attempt to set up bi-metallism. England and Germany will doubtless be glad to render reasonable assistance in getting out of the fix, but they will not be so crazy or so kind as to plunge into the same fix themselves. If the Conference should help, by its failure, to put a stop to our silver coinage it will do great good. We

must make up our minds before long which standard we will adhere to. Two standards we cannot have. No nation has ever had them.

Prince Bismarck has made a speech in the Reichstag, in which he defines the position of the Chancellor in the Imperial system, and in doing so explains the system itself in a way that has astonished even the natives. He was attacked by Herr Richter for his arbitrary way of dealing with his colleagues and subordinates, and for the unnecessary amount of labor he took on his own shoulders to the injury of his health and of the country, and thereupon replied that he was sixty years old and not likely to change, and that they must either take him as he was or go without him, and that his health was no concern of Herr Richter's; that the only responsible functionary of the Empire was the Chancellor, but as it did not appear that he was responsible to anybody in particular, the responsibility appears to be moral only. It is his duty, on the command of the Emperor, to submit to the Reichstag the decisions of the Federal Council, and for the performance of this duty he is responsible; but he need not do it if he does not think best. He may tell the Emperor that he does not think the bill a good one and refuse to sign it, and then the only way out of the difficulty for the Emperor is to get another chancellor. But then the Emperor need not get another chancellor unless he pleases, and in this way the Emperor has a power of vetoing all legislation, for legislation must originate in the Council, and if the Emperor and his Chancellor will not transmit it to the Reichstag there is an end of it. Thus, it appears, the Chancellor really controls all legislation. No enactment can take place without his permission. He is not responsible to the majority of either House. No one but the Emperor can dismiss him. So that, in point of fact, he and the Emperor govern the Empire, and the Reichstag has just whatever share in the work they like to allow it.

The difficulties of the Liberal Ministry in England are decidedly increasing. The Coercion Bill, now that it has passed, although it enables the Government to lock up the intimidators, promises to have some very unpleasant sequelæ, such as allowing landlords to carry out the very evictions which Mr. Forster's Disturbance Bill, which was defeated in the House of Lords, was intended to prevent. Then the pushing of Coercion Bill No. 2, in the shape of the Arms Bill, which it was hoped the Ministry would abandon, has disgusted a good many Liberals who half-heartedly supported the first one in the belief that it would be the last. The consequence of the great loss of time in overcoming the opposition is likely to be very serious. The fact is that it has so delayed the Estimates that Mr. Gladstone has been driven into the extraordinary step of asking for "urgency" for the vote on them, and to this Sir Stafford Northcote and the Conservatives have very naturally declined to agree, and the motion for urgency has failed to get the requisite two-thirds in a House of three hundred. Sir Stafford, too, has brought out one of the inconveniences of the urgency rule in very strong relief by publishing the reasons of his opposition to it in the case of the Estimates in a letter to his constituents, because on the motion for urgency he would be unable to state them in the House. Then Sir Vernon Harcourt has confessed to opening letters in the Post-office on something in the nature of a general warrant, thus reviving the memory of one of the great scandals of Tory administration forty years ago. These things, together with the war on the Boers, which Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Bright so strongly condemned before they took office, are trying the souls of a great many Liberals a good deal. The worst of the situation is that it now appears likely that the Land Bill, the promise of which reconciled many to voting for the Coercion Bill, will not be brought in before Easter. Should it be thrown out by the House of Lords, as is very likely, and should Mr. Gladstone appeal to the country on it, he could not try it again until next winter, and during the greater part of a year the Irish tenantry would be left in a condition of the intolerableness of which the Land Bill is itself a solemn recognition. It is difficult to say who is to blame for all this. Not the Irish Obstructionists wholly, because the Land Bill might have been introduced early in the session, and if there is any value in it at all the production of it must have diminished the number of outrages, and, *pro tanto*, have made the Coercion Bill seem less necessary.

THE PRESIDENT'S PLAN OF CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

PRESIDENT GARFIELD'S suggestion for reform in the civil service is by no means what one might have expected after his previous utterances on this subject; but we have little doubt that in this, as in some other matters, his action will be a considerable improvement on his speech. In fact, it is as well to say now at the outset that his proposal that the tenure of the minor offices of the several executive departments should be fixed, and that the grounds on which removals could be made during the terms for which the incumbents were appointed should be prescribed by law, might be adopted without effecting any improvement worth mention. This would be a good enough remedy, if the friends of reform had nothing to complain of except the hardship to the officers of holding under an uncertain tenure. It is, of course, very painful to a man to be in a place from which he may at any moment be arbitrarily dismissed. It causes him incessant and growing anxiety, which must, in a measure, unfit him for his duties. This anxiety would be diminished in a considerable degree by giving him a fixed term, during which he could not be removed except for misconduct or incapacity. He would then be sure of his place for four years, or whatever the term might be, and even four years of certainty would be a boon to a man who had no certainty at all about his future. But it is not difficult to show that the change would be in the direction of greater humanity rather than of better administration.

The chief objection to tenure by "influence" is not only that an officer is never sure of his place, but that the knowledge that he may be removed at any moment keeps a considerable body of claimants constantly at work to procure his removal. They incessantly demand that he be turned out, either because he has "had enough," or because the services of some other claimant to the Senator or Representative or to the party have been more valuable. Now, at present the number of these "workers" is kept down in some degree by uncertainty as to when a vacancy will occur, or whether they can succeed in making one. Heads of departments and members of Congress are able to resist "pressure" in some degree by saying that they cannot make a vacancy or get one made. In short, the process of getting a place under the Government is at present a double process: you have not only to secure your own appointment, but secure the dismissal of your predecessor; or, in other words, you have to deal with two uncertainties instead of one uncertainty. The sufferings of the man in possession under the present system are no doubt very great. As he sits at his desk he can hear the clamor of those who would like to oust him all round the building, and knows that the lobbies are full of them, and that they are using any weapon that comes to their hand in trying to take his bread from him.

But suppose the terms were all fixed by law, so that all the world would know for years beforehand the exact day on which each office would become vacant, and that applicants could go to the appointing power, when the time came, armed with this information, the pressure would be greatly increased and would be much less resistible. The number of "workers" would be much greater, for probably twice as many persons would consider themselves capable of getting into a vacancy as would consider themselves capable both of making a vacancy and getting into it. Where there were ten applicants under the present system there would be twenty under the new. Moreover, their preparations would begin much earlier. Nothing is so discouraging in any pursuit as complete ignorance as to when the crisis of one's fate will arrive. Knowing the exact day years beforehand, the worker's energy and ardor would rise steadily as it drew near. He would begin his pipe-laying at a greater distance, would intensify his activity in a greater variety of ways, and fortify his combinations by many more devices. The incumbent of the office, too, would, for similar reasons, make much more elaborate preparations for defence than he now makes. His present uncertainty is somewhat like the uncertainty of life during a pestilence. It makes him somewhat reckless and indifferent. He takes some precautions against extinction, but, knowing that all precautions may fail, and that the stroke may fall at any moment, he does not take nearly as many as he might take. If, on the other hand, he knew beforehand that if, on a certain day and at a certain hour, he successfully resisted the destroyer, he would be sure of at least four

years more of life, he would pass the whole intervening period in arming himself for the struggle, and would think no pains too great for that purpose.

The New York *Tribune*, in a recent article on this subject, says: "The limited tenure would not necessarily imply that an official would go out when his commission expired. Reappointment for another term would no doubt follow in most cases, unless political motives should dictate a change." It would not "necessarily" imply it, but it would undoubtedly imply it in practice. The fact that the term of the office was fixed by law would be used as a good reason for thinking that this term was long enough for any one man to hold the office. It would be treated as a solemn legislative recognition of the doctrine of "rotation"—that is, of the right of as many "workers" as possible to succeed each other at "the public crib"—and of the dangers of permanence in office. It would thus relieve the appointing power of a large part of the responsibility of making a change. It would furnish him with a good excuse for yielding at the very moment when the attacks on him were most vigorous. In the absence of competitive examinations, too, or some other mode of selection than favoritism, he would have no protection against the attacks of "influence." He would not be able to give a Boss a single sufficient reason for refusing to appoint a new man to the vacancy. He could not deny that the vacancy existed, or that the law thought the late incumbent had had it long enough, or that good might result to "the party" from appointing A. or B. to succeed him. Consequently these "political motives" would always, or almost always, "dictate a change." We should like to know when "political motives" did not "dictate a change." In fact, they seldom dictate anything else. It is the prospect of "a change" which, among politicians, gives these motives most of their force, and, indeed, one of the arguments in defence of the "spoils system" which one hears most frequently is, that without changes political motives would cease to exist.

It is true it might be so arranged that commissions would expire at different dates, and therefore "sweeping changes" would be impossible on the incoming of a new Administration, because, as the *Tribune* says, "the commissions of officials would expire at different times during the four years' Presidential term, and thus the service would be protected against the sudden advent of a large number of new and untrained men." This would be a gain undoubtedly, but it would not be as great a gain as it seems, for the reasons we have given; that is to say, the very fact that vacancies came singly and at intervals would make the onslaught of the applicants more vigorous and render the difficulty of resisting them greater. More attention and "influence" and "advice" could be concentrated on a place if it were the only prize in the arena than if there were a great many. We have no doubt we shall see a score of devices and suggestions like this one resorted to yet before the final victory is won, in order to stave off the only change which will be final and reformatory, and that is a change which recognizes human nature in the transaction of Government business to the same extent and by the same arrangements as in private business. All private business is managed on principles of human nature—that is, the conditions of employment are made such as to extract from the employee the utmost fidelity and industry of which he is believed to be capable, and the checks are such as to remove or diminish the temptations to which he is known to be liable. Government business must be managed in the same way. A short fixed term would be unobjectionable if it were well known that the question of reappointment would be decided solely on business considerations. When there is no strong probability, or at all events no certainty, that it will be decided on business considerations, the short term is an incentive to neglect of duty, because it constantly reminds an officer that his future depends on other things than the discharge of his duty. No man, too, who greatly cares for duty, who desires to provide for his later years by the display of honesty and capacity in his earlier ones, will take service under an employer who is ready to cast him off even at stated intervals from "political motives," which is simply a fine name for the fact that somebody else, who has not been able to secure a foothold in any regular calling, would like his place. Consequently, a government which treats its employees to short terms can never have anything but the dregs of the labor market. Government business consists largely of inspection and collection, which implies that its employees ought to be the superiors, or at least the

equals, of those whom it is called on to inspect and collect from. It is, therefore, or ought to be, absurd to see it gravely making arrangements to prevent any but the unfortunates and failures from entering its service.

THE RUSSIAN CONQUESTS IN CENTRAL ASIA.

GENERAL SKOBELEFF has taken Gök Tepe; the western division of the fierce Tekke-Turkomans submits to the White Czar; and Askabad, half way between the Russian base on the Caspian Sea and the city of Merv, is to become a fortified station on the road to Herat. The British have successively taken revenge on Shir Ali, Yakub Khan, and Ayub Khan; have added new lustre to the fame of their arms, and, content with this, now withdraw from Kandahar and from all Afghanistan, beyond the frontier established at Gandamak. Forty-two years ago, in 1839, the British made their first invasion of Afghanistan, mainly from fear of hostile Russian influence at the court of Kabul; and toward the close of the same year the Russians made their first serious attempt at conquest in Turkestan, under General Perovski, partly in response to Lord Auckland's aggressive move. Perovski's expedition against Khiva proved a disastrous failure, and the British invasion was crowned with success. But, shortly after, the tables were turned: an insurrection in Kabul overwhelmed the invaders from India, and, though they succeeded in chastising that capital, they left it and returned beyond the Indus in 1842; and in the same year the Russians obtained from the Khan of Khiva a treaty, in which he promised not to engage in hostilities against Russia, or to commit acts of robbery or piracy, such as had been the pretext for the Russian invasion. From that date down to 1878 the advance of the Russians in Turkestan was almost uninterrupted, while England, nervously watching and resenting it, as perilous to the future safety of her possessions in India, frequently protested, exchanged notes, obtained reassuring promises, and saw them broken, but never made a warlike movement to check the Russian approach to the Hindu-Kush. In 1878, when she had carried her Sepoys to Malta for the defence of Constantinople, before the gates of which Skobelev and other conquerors of Turkestan were encamped, and General Kaufmann, the governor-general of Russian Turkestan, had through a military embassy to Kabul secretly concluded a treaty "of friendship" with Shir Ali, she again declared war on Afghanistan. The Afghan Amir made a feeble resistance, his Russian friends stole out of Kabul, and he followed them, to die a fugitive. But the British success of 1879 was as ephemeral as that of forty years before, being followed, as then, by a catastrophe, stern vengeance, and a retreat from the country.

Had the Russians, in 1878-9, been where they are now in southern Turkestan, had Skobelev been near the borders of Herat with a victorious force, Shir Ali or Yakub Khan might now be on the throne of united Afghanistan, and the Indo-British government on the defensive east of the Khyber Pass. But the Tekke-Turkomans then barred the road through the oasis which offers access to Herat between the desert of Khiva and the Kopet-Dagh range, and the strong military expedition against them undertaken in 1879 under General Lazareff—a counterpart to Perovski's march of 1839, in respect to the British movements—ended in defeat at Gök Tepe, in September. It took the Russians twenty months, with immense sacrifices, to blot out the disgrace of that signal failure, and break the resistance of the Akhal Tekkes, but they have done it, and they are now almost completely masters of what was not many years ago Independent Turkestan or Independent Tartary, the land of three sovereign khanates and of several semi-independent tribes. The Khanate of Khokand is now entirely absorbed, Bokhara and Khiva have been narrowed in their limits and curbed into virtual vassalage, the Yomuds and Akhal Tekkes have been slaughtered off or bridled, the Kirghiz have ceased to rebel. And how long will the Tekkes of Merv resist? Did the English Cabinet, before ordering the final retreat from Afghanistan, obtain a promise of immunity from attack for Merv? And what is the value of such promises?

The absorption of all Independent Turkestan by Russia ought to have seemed fated the moment it became clear in 1842 that England was incapable of creating south of the Hindu-Kush a Mohammedan power both able and willing to give support to the Mohammedan popu-

lations north of it—if such a thing, against the laws of geography, be at all possible. The expansive power and desires of the empire of the Czars were vast. Its West-Asiatic neighbors were impotent. Turkey and Persia had repeatedly been vanquished. It had conquered the Caucasus, enveloped the Caspian Sea, occupied the Kirghiz steppes and the slopes of the Altai, and approached the banks of Lake Aral and the Syr Darya. The khanates had no natural protection except large tracts of sandy desert. The great mountain ranges were in their rear, cutting them off from kindred nations. Their great rivers, the Syr Darya and Amu Darya (Jaxartes and Oxus), flowing from south to north, formed no lines of defence. The people were unruly, fanatically barbarous, and predatory; their rulers disunited, incapable, and ignorant. Their Asiatic cunning was no match for Russian diplomatic intrigue, their valor and fanaticism no match for Russian discipline and cannon. Their cities, such as Bokhara, Samarkand, or Tashkent, tempting by their ancient fame and commercial wealth, were too poorly fortified for defence, and too important to be sacrificed in a struggle for independence; and their feuds with the Russians were old, their collisions with the frontier Cossacks unavoidable, while their natural connections with the Kirghiz, nominally subject to the Czar, led to daily complications. Pretexts for Russian aggression, such as plundering of merchants, man-stealing and enslavement, or inciting the Kirghiz to revolt, were never wanting.

The mutual wrongs had, perhaps, been equal when Perovski, in 1839, was sent "to chastise" the Khivans. When most of his five thousand men and almost all his ten thousand camels had succumbed to the rigorous winter of the steppe, the Russians were satisfied with the friendly treaty promises of the Khan, and turned their chief attention to the regions bordering on the Syr Darya. The distracted condition of the Khanate of Khokand invited attack and facilitated annexation. The approaches were gradually made, first from the side of Orenburg, and then also from that of Lakes Balkhash and Issi-Kul. Place after place was occupied, and fort after fort erected on the Syr Darya, from its mouth in Lake Aral upward. Ak-Masjid, on the river, was, after hard struggles, wrested from the Khokandians in 1853, and as a stronghold replaced by Fort Perovski. The Khan of Khokand, who attempted to reconquer his city, suffered a severe defeat. Viernoye, another important fort, north of Lake Issi-Kul, was erected in 1860. Perovski and Viernoye served as bases for a double advance, up along the Syr Darya and towards it from the east, in 1863. Several fortresses, at either extremity, were taken, and in 1864 the advance was resumed. The northern column captured Hazret-i-Turkestan; the eastern, Aulie-ata. Both columns converging, the commander of the eastern—Colonel Tchervayeff—occupied Tchermkent. The road to Tashkent, the great city of Khokand, was now open, and it was taken in 1865, and Khojent, on the upper Syr Darya, in 1866. The central khanate, Bokhara, had now sufficiently compromised itself to become an object of attack. The thirst for military distinction and promotion, the "order-cross fever," was raging in the Russian camps, and the ludicrous failure of the Western Powers in their inharmonious attempt at intervention against Russia during the Polish insurrection of 1863-4, had emboldened the leading statesmen in St. Petersburg to yield to military ambition and popular clamor in disregard of whatever "the enemies of Holy Russia," and especially England, might think or say. Thus Bokhara was attacked, and Samarkand, the mediæval queen of the East, was taken by General Kaufmann in 1868. The Amir ignominiously submitted. This was followed by a peaceful annexation in the southeast corner of Turkestan, the Chinese Government, which had lost Kashgar by insurrection, ceding to the Czar in 1871 the province of Kulja, beyond the lost country, for temporary occupation. It was now time to resume the chastisement of Khiva; and its barbarism certainly merited chastisement, though perhaps not at the hands of such civilizers as General Kaufmann or General Golovatcheff. In 1873 the khanate was invaded from three sides, from Orenburg and the northeast shore of the Caspian, from near the south shore of that sea, and from Tashkent. The Khan made a timid resistance, and his capital surrendered, General Skobelev evinced great gallantry in this campaign, which ended with a considerable annexation east of the Amu Darya, and a chastisement of the nomad Turkomans, west of that river, marked by a combination of treachery

and ferocity, on the part of Kaufmann and his military tools, compared with which Pellissier's smoking-out of Arabs in Algeria appears like innocent child's-play. Our countryman, Mr. Eugene Schuyler, has deserved well of history by making this bloody page of it authoritatively known to the world (in his 'Turkistan'), with the same vigor with which he subsequently exposed the Bulgarian massacres. An insurrection against the Khan of Khokand offered an excellent opportunity for intervention first and annexation afterwards, and after severe fighting in various parts, in which Skobeleff's bravery and energy outshone those of all others, the capital city, Khokand, was entered by General Kaufmann in 1875, and the country annexed to Russia, under its ancient name of Ferghana, in 1876.

The Turkish war of 1877-8 called Skobeleff to other fields of carnage and distinction; and after Lazareff's and his successor Lomakin's failure against the Tekke-Turkomans in 1879, it was again his lot in 1880 and the beginning of 1881 to triumph over their stubborn resistance. Far from spotless, he is the model hero of the Russian Chauvinists and Panslavic world-regenerators. It is probably his ambition, and it may possibly be his destiny, one day to lead the van of a Russian host to Herat, and far beyond it—if the fatal bomb which last Sunday terminated the career of Alexander II. does not give an entirely new direction to Russia's political life, within and abroad.

MADAME DE VERRUE.

PARIS, February 23, 1881.

IT is difficult to find a catalogue of any valuable library of choice books without finding some work with the arms of Madame de Verrue; she is one of the famous bibliophiles, like the Count d'Hoyrn, the Chancellor Séguier, Madame de Chamillard, etc. Who was this Madame de Verrue? She was born De Luynes, in Paris, on the 18th of January, 1670, in the Hôtel de Luynes. She was the daughter of the Duke de Luynes and of Anne de Rohan-Montbazan. At the age of thirteen (such were the customs of the time) she was affianced to a young Piedmontese nobleman, the Count de Verrue, of the old family of the Scaglia. The marriage took place on the 25th of August, 1683, and the young countess set off for Turin, by the way of Dauphiné and Mont Cenis. The Verrues had a fine old palace. M. de Verrue was gentleman of the Duke's bed-chamber, and colonel of one of his regiments of dragoons. The young Frenchwoman was presented to Victor-Amadeus II. This Prince, born in 1666, the son of Charles-Emmanuel II. and of Marie de Nemours, was still young. He had been brought up, like all his ancestors, a soldier; he was ignorant, violent, full of dissimulation. His mother, while she had been regent, had kept him in a state of complete subordination; the young Duke had spent all his time in pleasure—he found no "cruelles," as the French used to say, in the little court of Savoy. When Madame de Verrue arrived at Turin the Duke had thrown off the yoke of the regentess. He was married a short time afterwards to Mademoiselle, the daughter of Monsieur, the brother of Louis XIV. (She was from that time called Madame Royale at the Court of France; sometimes also Madame de Savoie, or Madame la Duchesse Royale.)

Madame de Verrue became a mother at the age of fifteen. Her mother-in-law was a lady-in-waiting to Madame Royale, who had soon a child herself. The two young Frenchwomen, Madame de Verrue and Madame Royale, lived in great intimacy. The Duke became enamoured of Madame de Verrue, and at the moment when she most needed the presence of her husband he left for Hungary, with the Duke's permission. He meant to make war on the Turks and wished "to acquire glory" (letter of the French ambassador, D'Arcy). The Duke became more and more attentive to Mme. de Verrue. She struggled long; she avoided all public places, all drives; she showed herself very seldom at the soirées of Madame Royale. Public rumor had already condemned her when she was still innocent. Nobody believed that the Duke would meet with serious resistance. Madame de Verrue resolved to make a journey to France with the Abbé de Verrue; her pretext was a visit to her father at the watering-place of Bourbon-l'Archambault. She made this journey, and told her father all her troubles. The Duke de Luynes offered to keep his daughter in France, but the Abbé de Verrue made great objections and brought her back to Turin. The Count de Verrue came back, but was under the influence of his own mother, who disliked the French daughter-in-law; he showed complete indifference to his wife. The Duke of Savoy continued to be very assiduous, and very soon afterwards the French ambassador could write to his court:

"Madame de Verrue was on Wednesday at the opera for the first time, in a box above the Duchess of Savoy's, which was not lighted, and where the Duke of Savoy remained nearly all the time, except a few moments when he went to other boxes, so as not to have his great attachment for Madame de

Verrue remarked. The Count, her husband, and the Abbé, her uncle, who were in one of my boxes, seemed rather anxious to observe the movements of the Duke of Savoy, though, since the former has come back from Hungary, I do not learn that the affection of the Prince for his wife has caused any disorder or displeasure in his house."

Madame de Verrue's position in her husband's family becoming intolerable, she made a *coup de tête*—she threw herself into the convent of the Daughters of St. Mary in Turin. In this asylum she lived in a complete retreat; she sold her diamonds, as she was left without money; she was *enceinte*, and was confined in the convent. Great events were preparing. The Duke of Savoy broke off with France and made treaties with all her enemies. The battle of Staffarde soon forced him to leave Carignano in order to cover Turin. Susa and Pinerolo were taken by Catinat. Madame de Verrue was still in her little pavilion in the convent of the Daughters of St. Mary. She hardly ever saw the Duke; she learned of the death of her father; she learned also that, notwithstanding the state of war between France and Savoy, the Verrues had taken the extreme resolution of abandoning Turin and of taking refuge in France. The Count de Verrue had carried away with him the four children which he had had by his wife. His departure left Madame de Verrue mistress of the battle-field. Saint-Simon says of her: "The new mistress soon established her empire over the whole court of Savoy; the sovereign was at her feet with such respect as would be shown to a goddess. She had a part in all indulgences, dispensed all favors. She was feared by the ministers. Her *hauteur* made her hated."

All the sovereigns of the time imitated Louis XIV. Victor-Amadeus appointed Madame de Verrue *dame d'atour* of the Duchess of Savoy (January, 1691). This gave her a permanent entrée to the court. She had a palace of her own near the ducal palace. She was as respectful as ever towards the Duchess of Savoy, but this respect was probably as offensive to the Duchess as insolence would have been. The Duke of Savoy had not the pleasing manners of Louis XIV. The Princess Palatine, who has left us letters rivalling in interest the 'Memoirs' of Saint-Simon, said of him: "The Duke of Savoy, King of Sicily, always begins his love-affairs with his mistresses with disputes and quarrels." In another letter she says: "I have heard that the Prince and Madame de Verrue quarrel for whole days." The Duke was unhappy. His wars against France were unsuccessful. He loved Madame de Verrue, but he was irritable and full of distrust. He succeeded in invading France in the spring of 1692 and took Embrun; but there he fell ill of the smallpox, and was brought back with much difficulty to Turin. He was very ill for more than a year. He lost the battle of Marsaglia, and finally he signed a treaty of peace with France. This treaty was advantageous to Victor Amadeus, as Louis XIV. wished to make of him a permanent ally. The daughter of the Duke of Savoy was promised to the Duke of Burgundy, who was at that time heir to the throne of France. Nice was given back to Savoy, but Savoy was obliged to turn against the Emperor of Germany and to lend her troops to France till the end of the war.

Madame de Verrue had become a perfect slave of the Duke's. She was only allowed to see a few persons, chosen by him. In this great solitude she became a collector, an amateur; she began to look for medals, furniture, cameos, books. In 1695 she was allowed to go to St. Moritz, on account of her health. She had become quite disgusted with her position in Turin, and she did not conceal it from M. de Tessé, the new French ambassador, to whom she wrote in secret, begging him to obtain for her the protection of Louis XIV. "I am very happy," says she in one of these letters, "and very grateful because the King does not look upon me as upon an unfortunate who ought to enter the 'Repenties.' I am deserving of pity, and my brother Chevreuse, with all Saint-Sulpice at his back, could not have avoided what has been brought upon me by the abandonment of my husband, by my mother-in-law, and by circumstances. I don't mean to justify myself, but, as a Frenchwoman, I am glad that the King does not look upon me as a miserable woman, unworthy of any consideration." The Duke of Savoy was no more faithful to Madame de Verrue than he had been to Madame Royale; but he always returned to her. "They spend their lives in hardnesses and reproaches, and still she knows everything; he can conceal nothing from her" (letter of Tessé's).

Madame de Verrue began to meditate flight from Savoy; she kept her project completely secret, but she sent her collections to France. One of her brothers, the Chevalier de Luynes, had been to Turin and left a valet there. This valet made himself an *antiquario*. Madame de Verrue sent him many fine objects, one by one, and he sent them to France; she used also the services of one of her French valets. Her brother, the Chevalier de Luynes, who was in the navy at Toulon, became her accomplice. She chose the moment when the Duke left for Chambéry to preside over the States of Savoy. She entered her ordinary carriage, with her ordinary servants, as if she were going out for a drive; she stopped the carriage at a short distance from the château of one of her friends, to which she told the servants that she meant to go on foot. She took a cross-road, met her brother, who was waiting for her, dressed herself in men's clothes, and took on horseback the road to Susa.

At Susa she took a litter and crossed Mt. Cenis, then taking a postchaise she never stopped till Grenoble was reached. She passed the night there, and then went directly to Dampierre, by way of Fontainebleau. Dampierre is one of the châteaux of the Luyne family. The Duke was very angry, but he behaved like a gentleman; he wrote to the King of France and asked him to protect Madame de Verrue, adding that he should himself always feel the greatest interest in her. Not a word of reproach came from his lips, and, to his credit, it must be said that for years afterwards he showed the greatest attentions to Madame de Verrue and to her relations, and was at least faithful to the memory of his own love. His ambassadors were under orders to pay their court to her; he had the "beau rôle," as the French say, and he played it well.

Madame de Verrue became reconciled to her family. She lived in great retirement in a convent. Her husband, according to the laws of the time, had the right to keep her in complete seclusion, but he was, some time after her return to France, killed at the battle of Höchstädt. Madame de Verrue became free; she stayed, however, in a pavilion of her convent, only taking down the iron bars which Monsieur de Verrue had ordered to be placed before the windows, according to the "coutume de Paris." She was free for the first time in her life; she was only thirty-four years old; she was still handsome, she had much *esprit*; yet she made her way but slowly again in society: she was under a cloud. The Court had become severe under the rule of Madame de Maintenon. The young Duchess of Burgundy, who was the only ray of pleasure in the Court, could hardly associate with her father's recognized mistress. Strangely enough, by her connection with the Chevreuses, Madame de Verrue found herself thrown in the austere set of the Port Royalists; at the same time she saw something of the light society of the Duke of Orléans. Her taste for collecting became a passion. The latter part of her life was entirely filled with the pleasures of the bibliophile and the amateur. She died on the 18th of November, 1736; and the catalogue made, after her death, of her pictures, her books and works of art, is among the most interesting and the most valuable of the catalogues of the eighteenth century. Many of her books have the mark of Meudon, where she had a country-seat.

Correspondence.

THE TRIBUNE'S MEASURE OF REFORM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I enclose an editorial cut from the New York *Tribune* of March 9, 1881. Will you please tell me why "A Practical Civil-Service Policy"—which the *Tribune* naively terms a measure of "reform"—is not an ingenious device for keeping a constant supply of the small change of patronage at the disposal of needy Senators and Members of Congress? L. M.

WASHINGTON, D. C., March 10, 1881.

[We think it is a device, but not an ingenious one. Anybody who has any knowledge of the subject sees its real nature at a glance.—ED. NATION.]

MISS INGELOW'S DECADENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a notice of 'Don John' the *Nation* says "it seems that Miss Ingelow is fond of quoting her own poetry, and that her career is in its decadence." Permit us to say that Miss Ingelow is not responsible for the poetical quotations in 'Don John,' and that if a steadily-increasing demand for her writings is proof of decadence, the *Nation* is otherwise correct.

Yours very truly, ROBERTS BROS.

BOSTON, March 10, 1881.

[It is difficult to correct the foregoing, it is so well mixed up. We said if 'Don John' was Miss Ingelow's, and if she was responsible for the poetic quotations in it, her career was in its decadence. But it appears that she did not write 'Don John' and is not responsible for the poetic quotations in it. It does not follow from this that her career is not in its decadence, but simply that one reason for thinking her career in its decadence does not exist. There may, too, be a steadily increasing demand for her books, and this may be proof of decadence, and yet the *Nation* may not be "otherwise correct," because the *Nation* affirmed nothing about any connection between sales and decadence.—ED. NATION.]

THE LATE MR. BRYANT'S INDEX EXPURGATORIUS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I hope you can find room to insert the accompanying letter. Its writer has kindly given me permission to publish it. As to its subject-matter, I content myself with referring to the remarks at p. 94, in your issue of the 10th instant.—Your obedient servant, FITZEDWARD HALL.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, Feb. 25, 1881.

"REFORM CLUB, PAUL MALL, S.W., Feb. 24, 1881.

"DEAR SIR: Shortly after returning to England from a long visit to the North American Continent, I saw your letter to the editor of the New York *Nation* concerning the *Index Expurgatorius* which appeared in my 'Columbia and Canada.' I learn from that letter that I am said to have been hoaxed. In publishing the list of words which the late Mr. Bryant forbade the contributors to the New York *Evening Post* to use, I published what I believed, and still believe, to be a genuine list; and I did so, moreover, in order to show how careful the conductor of the *Post* was in preserving the use of what he thought to be good English. The list itself was shown to me by Mr. Oliver B. Bunce, the editor of *Appleton's Journal*, in 1876. That list was in print, and, as I understood, it had been obtained from the office of the *Post*. At my request, Mr. Bunce was kind enough to get a transcript made for me. I copied this for the printer; and either the printer or myself is responsible for 'oration' being substituted for 'ovation.' Mr. John Russell Young, the eminent journalist, who was on a visit to England when 'Columbia and Canada' was passing through the press, did me the favor to read the proof-sheets and to correct blunders in matters of fact. He was satisfied about the authenticity of Mr. Bryant's *Index Expurgatorius*. He told me, however, that it had been revised and, possibly, enlarged by Mr. Parke Godwin.

"I did not know till I read your letter that when 'Columbia and Canada' was first published the list of words quoted therein was styled, 'in the most conspicuous place of' the 'editorial columns' of the *Evening Post*, 'spurious, imperfect, and inaccurate.' This was in 1877. I do know, however, that, when a second edition of that book appeared, in New York, in 1879—the first edition having been published in London—a critique appeared in the New York *Evening Post*, on the 16th of October, 1879, in which the work was pronounced 'interesting and valuable,' and that 'never was a book of travel written more frankly, more directly, or, on the whole, more fairly.' The critic adds:

"Among the things in New York which interested the traveller, the *Evening Post's* labors in behalf of pure English seem to have attracted his special attention. 'One journal,' he says, 'is distinguished among its contemporaries for striving to preserve the use of idiomatic and irreproachable English. This is the New York *Evening Post*, over which Mr. Bryant, one of the most notable among modern poets, exercised editorial authority for many years.' To his comments upon this subject the author appends a version of the *Evening Post's* list of prohibited words and phrases, which he commends to the attention of journalists elsewhere than in America."

"When I read the foregoing notice of my book I little thought that another writer in the same journal had denounced me, two years before, for having inserted in that book a list which was 'spurious, imperfect, and inaccurate.' My reference was intended to be, and I maintain that it was, entirely complimentary. I have myself contributed to its columns. I shall be glad to withdraw the *Index Expurgatorius* from 'Columbia and Canada,' and substitute for it any other one which may be open to no question, provided such an one can be discovered. The English edition of my book has been entirely out of print for some time, but, as a new and cheaper edition may be published here, I shall then have an opportunity of settling this vexed question. Meanwhile, I greatly regret that you should have been attacked for having relied upon the accuracy of what I had written, and that unavoidable circumstances hindered me from communicating with you sooner. I think, however, that in conducting this controversy you have been able to dispense with my help, and to fight for your hand with as much success as skill.

"Believe me to be faithfully yours,

W. FRASER RAE.

"FITZEDWARD HALL, Esq., M.A., D.C.L."

Notes.

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & CO.'S spring announcements include 'American Men and Women of Letters,' a series edited by Mr. James T. Fields; another series, 'Lives of American Statesmen,' edited by Mr. John T. Morse, jr.; an edition of the works of fiction of Björnstjerne Björnson, translated by Professor R. B. Anderson, of the University of Wisconsin; 'England Without and Within,' by Mr. Richard Grant White; the 'Life of Voltaire,' by Mr. James Parton; 'Pepacton, and Other Sketches,' by Mr. John Burroughs; and 'Giorgio, and Other Poems,' by Stuart Sterne.—J. B. Lippincott & Co. have in press 'An Epitome of Modern Fiction,' by Mrs. Frances C. Henderson.—A limited edition will be printed of a 'Monograph of Privately-Illustrated Books, and the Men who have Illustrated Them,' by Daniel M. Tredwell. The books in question are "contained in the most sumptuous libraries in and about New York." The monograph will be itself elegantly printed on small and large paper. Subscriptions should be sent to Mr. F. Tredwell, 9 Boerum Place, Brooklyn.—Captain J. M. Addeman's 'Reminiscences of Two Years with the Colored Troops,' in the "Personal Narratives of Events in the War of the Rebellion" (Providence: N.

Bangs Williams & Co.), does not add much either to the history of the war or to that of the colored service, and yet well sustains the interest of this praiseworthy and unpretentious series.—Part 8 of Dr. John Savage's 'Picturesque Ireland' (New York: Thomas Kelly) makes progress from Antrim to Galway. To the illustrations, old and new, is added a map of Donegal. The narrative is noticeably free from padding, florid rhetoric, and Celtic excitability, and is evidently the result of much research.—A "summer tramp" in Europe, under the direction of Professor David S. Jordan, of the Indiana State University, and of Professor Hermann B. Boisen, of Williams College, is announced. The party will sail from this port about June 16.—Mr. Jerome Hopkins's seventh Springtide Festival will be held next month in the New York Academy of Music. Its striking feature is a "grand musical tournament."—The first two volumes of Mr. S. R. Gardiner's 'Fall of the Monarchy of Charles I.' are in the press of the Messrs. Longmans. It covers the period 1637-1641.—The idea has occurred to John Alfred Langford, LL.D., F.R.H.S., to compile a little volume of extracts from English authors on the theme suggested by the title 'The Praise of Books.' It is, as he calls it in a brief preface, "a catena of praise from Richard de Bury and Chaucer down to writers of our own generation," the last being Mr. George Dawson. There is also some praise by the compiler in a "preliminary essay." The publishers, Messrs. Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co., have bound it very durably.—From the publisher, Wilhelm Friedrich, Leipzig, we have received a neat little volume of 250 pages containing a collection of poems selected from the most eminent modern Scandinavian poets and translated into German by Edmund Lobedanz ('Ausgewählte Gedichte von Björnsterne Björnson, etc.') In it are found many gems from Björnson, Munch, Runeberg, Welhaven, Winther, and others, in faithful and spirited translations, preserving the metre and rhyme of the original—a matter of some importance, as it naturalizes in Germany not only the poems themselves, but the Scandinavian melodies to which a large number of them have been set. Mr. Lobedanz accompanies his translations with notes referring to the various musical compositions belonging to each poem. A similar work would be a very desirable addition to American literature.—Correspondence of the late Ole Bull, criticisms upon him, or any other material useful in the preparation of a biography, is desired by his wife, and may be sent her in care of Prof. R. B. Anderson, Madison, Wisconsin. Everything will be returned according to instructions.—The performance of the "Œdipus Tyrannus" of Sophocles in the original Greek is announced to take place in the Sanders Theatre, Harvard University, on the evenings of May 17, 19, and 20. The music for the choruses has been expressly composed by Prof. J. K. Paine, and will be sung by a dramatic chorus of fifteen students, with supplementary voices and an orchestral accompaniment. Applications from a distance for tickets must be made before March 25 to C. W. Sever, Cambridge.

—Professor Goldwin Smith has reprinted, in a book intended for private circulation ('Lectures and Essays,' Toronto: Hunter, Rose & Co.), a number of his contributions to periodicals, which his friends sometimes call for and he cannot supply in the original form. "The great public," he says, "is sick of reprints, and with good reason," and therefore the great public is shut out, to its loss, from a volume which, like every body of highly suggestive writing, has a more than transient value. Political subjects have been excluded on account of the restricted audience, and "because the writer looks forward to putting the thoughts scattered over his political essays and reviews into a more connected form." The historical papers in the present volume can be read with a keen interest—"The Greatness of the Romans," "The Greatness of England," "Falkland and the Puritans" (*Contemporary Review*); "The Last Republicans of Rome" (*Macmillan's*); "The Great Duel of the Seventeenth Century [the Thirty Years' War]," "Alfredus Rex Fundator," "A Wirepuller of Kings [Baron Stockmar]" (*Canadian Monthly*), together with such combinations of history and biography as "The Early Years of the Conqueror of Quebec" (*Toronto Nation*), "The Early Years of Abraham Lincoln" (*Toronto Mail*), and "Pattison's Milton" (*New York Nation*); two biographical reviews which also first appeared in these columns, "Austen-Leigh's Memoir of Jane Austen" and "Coleridge's Life of Keble," and "A True Captain of Industry [Thomas Brassey]" (*Canadian Monthly*). There remain discussions of other topics on which Prof. Smith's opinions are more open to challenge, such as, "The Lamps of Fiction," "An Address to the Oxford School of Science and Art," "The Ascent of Man" and "The Proposed Substitutes for Religion" (*Macmillan's*), "The Labor Movement," "What is Culpable Luxury?" (*Canadian Monthly*). To pass from one to another of these agreeable essays is to experience the feeling that one has in reading the same author's monthly *Bystander*: all the departments may not be equally well sustained, but at no point would one underrate the privilege of conversation with so much liberality and learning.

—In one way we can speak with less restraint of Dr. Granville Stanley Hall's 'Aspects of German Culture' (Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.), because the public at large is cordially invited to buy and read it. But then four-

fifths of its contents originally appeared in the *Nation* in the shape either of reviews or of letters from Germany. There is, however, no reason why we should forbear to express openly our appreciation of correspondence already approved by our *imprimatur*, and which, as we have abundant means of knowing, attracted the marked attention not only of our readers but of the editorial fraternity, catering for quite different audiences. This last fact is proof that Dr. Hall has a gift for popularizing, and while no one need expect to take up a book with this title and get through it without occasional "tough reading," he will end, even in the abstruser metaphysical portions, by wondering at the cleverness of his own understanding. The lightest of all these papers is, perhaps, "A Pomeranian Watering-Place," which is, nevertheless, a model of description and philosophical observation. Of the same order are "The Leipzig Messe" and "The Passion Play"—old themes, both, freshly treated—"The Emperor Wilhelm's Return"; and then, by semi-popular stages like "The Vivisection Question," "Popular Science in Germany," "The Graphic Method," "Spiritualism in Germany," "Recent Studies in Hypnotism," "Are the German Universities Declining?" we pass to "Hartmann's New System of Pessimistic Ethics," "The New Cultus War," "Is Aesthetics a Science?" "The Latest German Philosophical Literature," etc., etc. Systematic-biographic sketches, meantime, of Hermann Lotze and Ferdinand Lassalle enliven the series, of which the variety would be incompletely exhibited if we omitted the study of Laura Bridgman and the essay on "The Muscular Perception of Space," from *Mind*, a note on Hegel, from the *Journal of Speculative Philosophy*, and "The Perception of Color," from the Proceedings of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. Dr. Hall is, above everything, a psychologist, and comprehensively we may say of him that he has hardly a rival in this country in his capacity for absorbing the literature of his favorite pursuit and producing a digest of it in a clear, connected, and taking manner.

—The lapse of more than twenty years since the last edition of 'Worcester's Quarto Dictionary' would, if this were our only English lexicon, lend great interest to the edition just brought out by J. B. Lippincott & Co. But two editions of Webster in the meantime have forestalled by far the greater part of what the Worcesterian dredge could possibly bring to its own surface for the first time. Whoever, therefore, compares the Webster supplement of 1879 (reviewed in the *Nation* of August 3 of that year) and the Worcester supplement now before us, will find comparatively few neologisms not common to both, though the addition—of titles and of meanings—to the original vocabulary of Worcester is, of course, very considerable. Worcester has now "caught up with" *absinth*, *carpet-bagger*, *to boss* (but not the substantive *boss* in the political sense, which Webster equally lacks), *to interview* and *interviewer*, *negative* (photographic), *nexus*, *undershirt* (what a suggestion of ignorance of this article in 1859!), etc. *Ablative*, too, meaning the grammatical case, is admitted for the first time, and *non-resistant* (as a substantive), both of which seem tardy arrivals; just as *astigmatism*, though occurring in the 1859 edition of Worcester, first appears in the Webster supplement of 1879. A good deal belated, also, is *nature-printing*, a term certainly familiar in 1859, yet still overlooked by Webster. In Worcester only do we find John Bright's *Adullamite*, together with *Nirvana*, *Upanishads*, and *Vehmgericht*; recent inventions like *artotype* (probably a bastard formation, and not, as suggested, a corruption of "autotype"), *audiphone*, and *photophone*; *antenatal*, *unmoral*, etc. A significant proportion of the words in the Worcester supplement is derived from Chaucer and other old English writers. The remaining feature of the new edition is a very welcome one—a list of synonyms of words in common use; and we must also praise the fair and open typography of the volume.

—The hard weather during the present winter season, particularly at the West, has called into use there a word which promptly struck the Eastern fancy, and promises to become a national Americanism—namely, "blizzard." It designates a storm (of snow and wind) which man cannot resist away from shelter, which destroys herds of cattle, blocks railroads, and generally paralyzes life on the prairies and on the plains. The *Milwaukee Republican* alleges that the word was first applied to the weather by a certain "prophet" called "Lightning Ellis," and adopted from him by Mr. O. C. Bates, editor of the *Northern Vindicator*, when seeking a sensational headline. This was "some time in the '60's," or "nearly 15 years ago." A writer in the *Critic* concludes that "the most natural place to look for such a word is in the *patois* of the French Canadian voyageurs," and imagines a *blesart*, "to denote a north wind that cuts like a knife." This "simplest derivation," however, is open to the simple objection that the word blizzard was in use, in a different sense, and in a very different quarter, where such storms are unknown, some fifty years or more ago. Bartlett's Dictionary says of it: "*Blizzard*. A poser. This word is not known in the Eastern States," and cites Crockett's 'Tour' (1834), as follows: "A gentleman at dinner asked me for a toast; and supposing he meant to have some fun at my expense, I concluded to go ahead and give him and his likes a *blizzard*." The exuberance of the American metaphor is equal to the application of the term "poser" to a heavy storm:

but at all events the etymology of "blizzard" must be sought elsewhere than in "voyageur slang."

—A copy of the April number of *Harper's Magazine* might appropriately be laid beside every plate at the approaching dinner to Mr. Schurz in Boston; and, in spite of the unfortunate division in the philanthropic ranks of that city, the same number would be quite as welcome if found on the seats of the proposed meeting to be addressed by Senators Dawes and Hoar. The key to this riddle is Miss Helen Ludlow's deeply interesting paper on "Indian Education at Hampton and Carlisle," which on the one hand satisfies the sentiment that has out-Poncaed the Poncas in its demand for poetic justice, and on the other unobtrusively bears witness to the warm support which Secretary Schurz has given to this rational, humane, atoning scheme for transforming savages into citizens. The narrative is eloquent in its mere recital of the rapid changes effected in the youth from a large variety of tribes, and is enforced at every point by conscientious engravings—of high ethnic as well as ethical value—after photographs from life. Those who own or who recall the "before and after" photographs that used to come up from the Sea Islands, when the first freedmen's school missions were established there, will be struck with some of the companion pictures of her Indian pupils furnished by Miss Ludlow. It is, moreover, gratifying to read that the colored students of Hampton Institute received their otherwise dusky brethren without jealousy, and found an instant *modus vivendi*, as if negroes had never known Indian task-masters. There seems to be evidence that the new-comers will reward this kindness by furnishing an intellectual stimulus to the colored boys and girls, not many of whom, we may be sure, could pretend to such progress as is evinced by the fac-simile of the Sioux boy's slate after seven months and a half of schooling. The girls' side of this experiment is the most remarkable, and nothing is more touching than the incidents showing the strong affection of the fathers, both chiefs and non-chiefs, for their altered but, let us hope, still unsophisticated daughters. Admirable seems the plan of frequent reports to the parents, endorsed by a "home letter" where the child is capable of it, and wise the summer scattering of picked pupils "among the farmers of Berkshire County, Mass., working for their board, sharing the home life, and improving in health, English, and general tone." There is a deal of curious suggestiveness in Miss Ludlow's paper, but we cannot enlarge upon it. One point particularly we should like to have seen elucidated—the naming of the Indian minors: we read of "Virginia," "Grace," "Luther," and of one "Samuel Townsend," a Pawnee journalist, editor of the *School News*.

—The Census Office has just published a bulletin showing the white and colored (negro and mixed-blood) population in the several States and Territories; the relative proportion of each, as expressed by the number of colored to 100,000 whites; and the changes which have taken place during the decade in the relative proportion of colored to white population. It appears that in three States—namely, South Carolina, Mississippi, and Louisiana—the number of blacks exceeds that of the whites. In the first-named more than three-fifths of the population are colored, there being 154,458 to 100,000 whites. In Mississippi there are 135,664 colored to 100,000 whites, while in Louisiana the proportion is 106,327 to 100,000 whites. In Alabama the blacks are nearly 91 per cent. of the whites; in Georgia, 89; and in Florida, 88 per cent. Virginia comes next, with 72 per cent.; then North Carolina, with 61 per cent.; and the District of Columbia, with 50 per cent., or with one-third of its population of African descent. Of the other Southern States, Texas, Tennessee, and Arkansas have a colored element between 30 and 40 per cent. of the white; Kentucky, Maryland, and Delaware, between 20 and 30 per cent.; while Missouri and West Virginia have the least, that of the former being 7 and of the latter 4 per cent. The colored element of the Northern States is inconsiderable, being, in Kansas, where the proportion is greatest, but 4½ per cent. of the white population, while in eighteen of the Northern States it is less than 1 per cent. and in six more it is between 1 and 2 per cent. In the United States, as a whole, the proportion is 1,538 to the 100,000, or about 1½ per cent. of the whites.

—The changes which have taken place in the relative proportions of the races are marked only in the Southern States. South Carolina, Mississippi, Louisiana, Georgia, North Carolina, and Arkansas all show a very decided increase in the proportion of colored population. On the basis of 100,000 whites, the first of these States shows a gain of 10,909, and Mississippi a gain of 9,936. It should be remembered, however, that the census of 1870, with which these comparisons are made, was taken very imperfectly in these six States, and that of the two classes of population the negro is the one most likely to have been overlooked by the enumerators. The District of Columbia has gained 1,053, and Tennessee 944. These are veritable gains, as the census of 1870 was here unquestionably correct. In Indiana we note a proportional gain of 519, which may have some connection with the exodus. The other gains, which are confined to the Northern States, are trifling in amount, and have little significance. Altogether, the proportion of the colored population has increased in 27 States and Territories during the decade. The

great proportional decrease has been in the two Southern States of Texas and Florida. In the former it amounts to no less than 11,985, and in the latter to 6,993 to the 100,000. The explanation of this is easy: both these States have received great numbers of white immigrants. Texas has nearly doubled in population since 1870, most of the increase being in the middle and border counties. The other Southern States which have lost relatively in negro population are: Alabama, 574; Kentucky, 514; Virginia, 309; Delaware, 294; and Missouri, 197. All these are trifling, amounting in no case to six-tenths of one per cent. of the whites. Kansas, to which the greater part of the exodus was directed, has lost relatively in colored population the amount of four-tenths of one per cent. This State has, however, nearly trebled in total population during the decade. In 20 States and Territories the decade has witnessed a relative decrease in the proportion of the colored element. In the United States as a whole there has been an increase of 625 to the 100,000.

—The latest issues of the "Great Artist" series (Scribner & Welford), whose successive volumes have been noticed from time to time in these pages, are 'Sir Joshua Reynolds,' by F. S. Pulling, M.A.; 'Sir Edwin Landseer,' by Frederick Stephens; 'Fra Bartolommeo and Andrea del Sarto,' by Leader Scott; and 'Fra Angelico and Masaccio,' by Catherine Mary Phillimore. The first three betray great need of the services of an editor; if the series has one, there are no indications of his hand, and it is a commonplace that "journeyman work" of this sort done in English especially calls for the pruning-knife of supervision. Sir Joshua's place in English art is fortunately pretty plain, but if it were not, Mr. Pulling would do little towards making it plainer, and it seems to have been his design to write a eulogium rather than a critical biography. Reynolds is, indeed, as he says, "one of the very few instances in which an epitaph is alike extremely eulogistic and perfectly truthful," but readers for whom primers are written need something besides an epitaph, however truthful, and Mr. Pulling's book is little else than Reynolds's epitaph expanded. If criticism even of a man of times so long past, and a painter of such plain qualities, be hazardous in a primer, nevertheless the qualities of a critic rather than those of an advocate are requisite to prevent the writers of primers from going astray and becoming misleading. And readers whom his book is especially designed to benefit will, we fancy, have to learn elsewhere the qualifications which Mr. Pulling does not make for them in calling Reynolds "England's greatest painter." The biography is interesting, however, and the most serious fault of the book is its padding. "Absurd" is not too strong a word for the whole of page 3, for example, considering the aim of the book; it is a series of platitudes upon the text: "Who has not noticed that silent, plodding James often makes his mark, while brilliant Jack's home reputation is all the fame he ever earns?" The same faults make Mr. Stephens's book on Landseer equally inadequate to its purpose. Compared with other works of the series, its length and scale are quite out of proportion. Picture after picture is described in detail, and devices of various kinds are employed to expand the book, for which the appropriate material is after all, perhaps, more abundant than important. Such a remark as "coloring is simply out of the question in Landseer's art," if applied to Landseer in particular, may be said to show discrimination, and in many places his work is not over-praised, though upon the whole the book is calculated to leave the impression of a greater artist, perhaps, than impartiality would now pronounce Landseer to have been. It is worth remark that the illustrations are chiefly cuts of his sketches which, according to painters' standards, are certainly his best work, and we imagine people generally would now find more that is pictorially enjoyable in them than in his ambitious pictures, which are rather literary than pictorial. There is a great deal in the volume that might be spared; for example, what place in an art primer, one may ask, has such a remark as—"rather tired of the subject, as ladies are apt to become, when conversation does not appeal to their feelings or their interests," etc.? (p. 67).

—Altogether too fond of giving expression to his own notions and emotions to make a valuable elementary *précis* concerning Fra Bartolommeo and Del Sarto is also Mr. Leader Scott. His entire first chapter, entitled "Thoughts on the Renaissance," a judicious editor would have made a clean sweep of. "It seems to be a law of nature that progress as well as time," he begins, "should be marked by periods of alternate light and darkness—day and night. This law is nowhere more apparent than in the history of Art." Reflections of this character must seem important, of course, to the writer who makes them, but it is difficult to see how he can deem them precious when space is, as it is here, the first consideration. But his "Thoughts" carry their own corrective, we trust, and the reader will not be surprised to find the characterization of the painters dealt with further on mystical rather than descriptive. Fra Bartolommeo and Del Sarto both, for instance, are said to combine nearly all the excellences of Leonardo, Raphael, and Michael Angelo, the former, however, "with just the inexpressible want of that supernatural genius which would have placed him above them all," and the latter being "more imitative than spontaneous; and this forms, perhaps, the difference between talent and genius." On the other hand, Miss Phillimore's volume on Fra Angelico, Masaccio, and others of the early fifteenth-century

masters is precisely what a book of its aim and scope should be. She displays none of the anxiety to turn the opportunity to personal account which besets the other summarists of whom we have been speaking, but occupies herself exclusively with the matter in hand, giving frankly and concisely what is known and what is thought of it, after having familiarized herself with the literature that already exists concerning it. The result is, naturally, one of the best books of the series, secured simply by avoiding obvious obstacles to the manufacture of a readable and instructive popular epitome. Neither does she fall into the opposite error of baldness, but endues her account with an individuality which indicates plainly enough that she is a competent critic as well as a successful expositor of her material. These merits are sufficient to make detailed criticism of her work superfluous. We should add that all four volumes are fairly illustrated and abundantly supplied with statistical information, such as lists of pictures, chronology, and so on.

—As germane to the general subject, we may mention here a collection from the writings of artists and others, entitled 'Art Suggestions from the Masters,' compiled by Mrs. Susan N. Carter, Principal of the Cooper Union Women's Art School, and recently published by Putnam. It will be the first of a series if it should meet with encouragement, and contains selections from Reynolds, Bell, Hazlitt, and Haydon. The editor's name is guarantee of the execution of the scheme, whose intrinsic value we know of no better way to test than by the experiment here made. *A priori* one would say it should be found acceptable "in the present development of interest in art," to quote from the preface.

—"I can find no passage in Wordsworth," writes a correspondent, apropos of an allusion in Mr. George P. Marsh's recent article on "The Biography of a Word" (*Nation*, No. 815), "that properly describes the Alpine 'transfiguration.' The passage which Mr. Marsh had in mind, however, I dare say is the following, from the Evening Ode, composed upon an evening of extraordinary splendor and beauty ('Poems of the Imagination'):

"No sound is uttered,—but a deep
And solemn harmony pervades
The hollow vale from steep to steep,
And penetrates the glades,
Far distant images draw nigh,
Called forth by wondrous potency
Of beamy radiance, that imbues
Whate'er it strikes with gem-like hues.
In vision exquisitely clear,
Herds range along the mountain side;
And glistening antlers are descried;
And gilded flocks appear."

This, however, is in English mountains, and the splendor seems to result mainly from the clearness of the air. The 'gem-like hues' indicate transfiguration, but I am uncertain. There is nothing in Wordsworth's Alpine poems to suggest his having observed this in his journeys to Switzerland, and I doubt very much whether he saw it there."

—The programme of the fifth concert of the Philharmonic Society introduced two interesting novelties. The first was an overture to Schiller's unfinished drama, "Demetrius," by Rheinberger. The composer is little known in this country. He belongs to the advanced modern school of music, under the influence of which he received his education in Munich. He is at present engaged as professor at the Royal Academy in that city. The overture gives no evidence of brilliant or original ideas, but is distinguished by a very effective instrumentation. It is interesting as a novelty, but it made no impression on the audience, and will not, we apprehend, have a lasting place in Mr. Thomas's repertoire. The fantasia by Svendsen, "Romeo and Juliet," is modelled upon Liszt's symphonic poems. Certain incidents of the history of the two unfortunate lovers are characteristically represented in it. Several of Svendsen's instrumental works, particularly his chamber-music, have gained a certain amount of popularity among our amateurs. Mr. Thomas's string orchestra, about eighty strong, admirably interpreted Bach's concerto in G minor. This powerful composition is not an adaptation, but was originally written as it was performed on Saturday, being one of six of the same class which Bach has bequeathed us. Mr. Joseffy gave an excellent rendering of Schumann's piano-forte concerto, and Beethoven's Pastoral Symphony concluded the performance.

—Mr. Feininger concluded his series of chamber-music soirées on Wednesday week. Beethoven's beautiful quartet in C minor was the opening number, and was executed in a masterly manner by Mr. Feininger and his associates. A long and elaborate quintet for piano and strings, by Rubinstein, was a novelty to the majority of the audience. There is a certain monotony in this composition, all four movements being in the same moderate tempo. The performance was, moreover, marred by the pianist, who proved unequal to the great technical difficulties which the quintet presents. Mr. Feininger selected as his solo number an "Allegro Pathétique," by Ernst, whose break-neck flourishes and runs in octaves, sixths, and thirds were skilfully achieved by the player, but from the nature of the piece he was unable to give either pleasure or satisfaction.

—The French Academy of Medicine had under discussion on Washing-

ton's birthday the subject of trichinosis, the prevailing sentiment being opposed to the alarmist view on which the Government had acted in prohibiting the importation of American pork, which has become a very necessary article of popular diet. The conclusions reached, or at least advanced by individual speakers, were that salting is no defence against the disease, though in time the trichinae thus treated will perish. Cooking, whether roasting or boiling, which does not reach the centre of the meat, fails to destroy the danger, and M. Valin expressed the hope that the fashion of bringing rare meat (*les viandes saignantes*) to the table would be given up in favor of the older traditions of French cookery. The long use of American pork without any manifestations of its deadliness in the autopsies was referred to by M. Davaine, and the infrequency of the disease in man in this country might have been cited in confirmation of this observation. An organized movement in opposition to the Government's action is said to have been undertaken by a number of senators and deputies.

CARLYLE'S REMINISCENCES.*

SOME years before his death Carlyle had given his entire personal correspondence, methodically preserved, and together with it his own letters to his mother, wife, brothers, and many friends, all of which had been kept as carefully, his own and Mrs. Carlyle's journals, and fragments written by himself upon his father, his wife, Edward Irving, Jeffrey, Southey, and Wordsworth, into the hands of Mr. Froude. The fragments—they are to be so called in strictness, though they are laden with detail—are here published under the title 'Reminiscences,' and precede the 'Life and Letters' upon which, we presume, Mr. Froude is now engaged. They are published, says Mr. Froude, "with Mr. Carlyle's consent, but without his supervision. The detailed responsibility is therefore entirely my own." He had authority to do with the material as he saw fit, but Carlyle evidently foresaw that he would see fit to print all any one could care to read, and his assumption of responsibility, however generous, is purely nominal. Carlyle's quasi-commission to him was marked, as he says with simplicity, by "characteristic fearlessness," and we can think of no standard of selection, except that of the popular demand, applicable in the execution of it. These reminiscences, at least, were clearly written for the public, as well as for the satisfaction of the author, and even if there were no intrinsic evidence to this effect, their delivery to Mr. Froude would, of course, suffice. The "fearlessness" of the whole matter is, perhaps, the most obvious thing about it. Few men living, or who have lived, could evince as much with so much security. They are intensely personal and intimate, and concern the writer quite as much as the persons written of, and yet they do not have at all the air of such "Confessions" as are to be met with in literature, even when these are as absolutely candid. It sounds like exaggeration to say of any man that he would not shrink from having his inmost and sacredest thought made public—after death, of course, had withdrawn the screen of modesty; but within reasonable bounds we believe it might be said of Carlyle. Nor to those who have really read his works will it seem surprising; only these 'Reminiscences' emphasize its truth with great definiteness. In this respect they impress one vividly with the thought that, gloomy as a great part of his existence undoubtedly was—what with dyspepsia and poverty and the ways of the wicked world—few human beings have lived more thoroughly self-satisfied lives than he. Evidences of this unfold themselves in page after page. He had a conscience void of offence, and a wife who gave it powerful backing, apparently; and, careless of all other approval more nearly than any one of whom we read, outside the records of saintly or fanatic ecstasies, attained the ideal of life and character which he himself cherished. The contempt he professed for contemporary applause, and for all judgments of posterity, was as sincere as that of Diogenes. "Neither did Thackeray inspire me with any emotion," he says (p. 522), "still less with any ray of exultation: 'One other poor judge voting,' I said to myself; 'but what is he, or such as he?'" Perhaps one does not write down such a remark if his indifference is complete, but he clearly believed it to be, and neither here nor elsewhere did self-examination plague him greatly. After his three weeks' struggle with himself at Edinburgh about entering the ministry, he probably adopted what is called in the 'Life of Sterling' "the light of your mind, which is the direct inspiration of the Almighty," as his sure guide in conduct and thought. If it occasionally proved rather an *ignis fatuus* in matters of fact, as distinguished from speculation, his regret had nothing poignant about it. He speaks, for example (p. 296), of "Commodore Wilkes," who boarded the *Trent* some years ago and almost involved us in war with Yankee-land, during that beautiful Nigger agony or 'Civil War' of theirs! And Mr. Froude explains in a note that, after reading 'The Harvard Memorial Biographies,' he said "Perhaps there was more in that matter, after all, than I was aware of." As to the 'Latter Day Pamphlets' he probably felt no regret at all, and that which he expressed in his Edinburgh ad-

* 'Reminiscences.' By Thomas Carlyle. Edited by James Anthony Froude. New York Charles Scribner's Sons; Harper & Bros. 1881.

dress must, in the light of what we here find, be set down to a civil amenity which he deemed appropriate to the occasion. They "were a great relief to my own conscience as a faithful citizen, and have been ever since" (p. 426); and (p. 427), "No idea, or shadow of an idea, is in that address but what had been set forth by me tens of times before, and the poor gaping sea of Prurient Blockheadism receives it as a kind of inspired revelation, and runs to buy my books (it is said) now when I have got quite done with their buying or refusing to buy." It is interesting to contrast the tone of this with the following sentence from the address itself: "I have written down some very fierce things about that [rushing after fine speech], perhaps considerably more emphatic than I could wish them to be now; but they are deeply my conviction." The difference in tone is everything in the world in such matters, of course, and "the poor gaping sea of Prurient Blockheadism" was not blind in regard to the fact, as Carlyle seems absolutely to have been—if we are to take these 'Reminiscences' as authoritative. Amenity, as such, was no part of his ideal, and offences against it were not offences which he would lament. Add to this strict conformity of his conduct to his ideal in these and similar matters a blameless moral life, and the "fearlessness" which Mr. Froude mentions becomes easily explicable so far as it relates to himself.

As a natural consequence it is equally explicable also in his judgments of others, where, indeed, it is not less evident. It is exercised abundantly in sketches of his contemporaries scattered through the book, and for these the book will, of course, be mainly read. They are certainly very good reading, though to enjoy them one has to approach them in a spirit which Carlyle would condemn—a spirit of curiosity rather than of earnest enquiry. A few of them recall the best manifestations of his remarkable gift of portraiture; but it is impossible not to feel in others that the assured "impressionist" manner of sketching character that illuminates the pages of his 'Frederic,' say, has its disadvantages when applied to portraits of actual contemporaries and every-day acquaintance. His insight and sensitiveness to impressions nearly if not quite equalled his imaginativeness and power of delineation, and, accordingly, in these sketches we have a good deal of vivid portraiture as the result of singularly shrewd observation and quick intuition. As criticism to which one may hold it is not, perhaps, important. A cautious reader will instantly feel its defects, its absolute lack of deference, of that *Ehrfurcht* for equals to which, as Carlyle says, Goethe "attributes an immense power in the culture of men," and its deficient sympathy for qualities lying outside the Carlyle ideal. Chalmers was, he says, "a man essentially of little culture, of narrow sphere, of all his life. Such an intellect, professing to be educated, and yet so ill read, so ignorant in all that lay beyond the horizon in place or in time, I have almost nowhere met with. . . . I suppose there will never again be such a creature in any Christian church" (p. 127). What is said of Coleridge differs but little from the elaborate portrait in the 'Life of Sterling,' except that there is no relief: "a puffy, anxious, obstructed-looking, fattish old man hobbled about with us, talking with a kind of solemn emphasis on matters which were of no interest" (p. 182), etc. "A confused dim miscellany" of "geniuses" was to be met with at Basil Montague's. "There was a 'Crabb Robinson' who had been in Weimar," etc. Lamb Carlyle saw once at his own house, and "once I gradually felt to have been enough for me." Long after he saw more of him, and his account is so marked by "characteristic fearlessness," as well as by other qualities we have mentioned, that it is worth quoting at length:

"Charles Lamb and his sister came daily once or oftener; a very sorry pair of phenomena. Insuperable proclivity to gin in poor old Lamb. His talk contemptibly small, indicating wondrous ignorance and shallowness, even when it was serious and good-mannered, which it seldom was, usually ill-mannered (to a degree), screwed into frosty artificialities, ghastly make-believe of wit; in fact, more like 'diluted insanity' (as I defined it) than anything of real jocosity, humor, or geniality. A most slender fibre of actual worth in that poor Charles, abundantly recognizable to me as to others, in his better times and moods; but he was cockney to the marrow, and cockneydom, shouting 'glorious, marvellous, unparalleled in nature!' all his days had quite bewildered his poor head and churned nearly all the sense out of the poor man. He was the leanest of mankind, tiny black breeches buttoned to the knee-cap and no further, surmounting spindle-legs also in black, face and head fineish, black, bony, lean, and of a Jew-type rather; in the eyes a kind of smoky brightness or confused sharpness; spoke with a stutter; in walking tottered and shuffled; emblem of imbecility bodily and spiritual (something of real insanity, I have understood), and yet something, too, of human, ingenuous, pathetic, sportfully much enduring."

One person pleased him in the Montague "miscellany," namely, Barry Cornwall. "A decidedly rather pretty little fellow Procter, bodily and spiritually; manners prepossessing, slightly London-elegant, not unpleasant; clear judgment in him, though of narrow field," and much more to the same purport, making in all one of the most agreeable portraits of the book. It is curious to remark, however, that even here, where there is as much heartiness as we find anywhere, except when the Carlyles or Welshes or Edward Irving is in question, the first four words betray an amusingly nervous dread of overshooting the mark. "Decidedly rather pretty" is a stroke of ge-

nus in the way of compromise, surely, and better without being much more fulsome than what he can find it in his heart to say of Washington Irving, for instance—"whose books I somewhat esteemed," and "I never saw Washington at all, but still have a mild esteem of the good man" (p. 211). How near positive flattery he loosely allowed himself to get here probably Carlyle never appreciated, but the uprightness of his intentions is manifest. He heard once "the famous Dr. Hall," of Leicester, preach. "Sermon extempore; text, 'God who cannot lie.' He proved beyond shadow of doubt, in a really forcible but most superfluous way, that God never lied (had no need to do it, etc.) 'As good prove that God never fought a duel' sniffed Badams, on my reporting at home." Badams was "next to Procter in my esteem." A page on De Quincey is admirable—"a pretty little creature, full of wire-drawn ingenuities, bankrupt enthusiasms, bankrupt pride, with the finest silver-toned low voice, and most elaborate gently-winding courtesies and ingenuities in conversation. . . . When he sate, you would have taken him, by candle-light, for the beautifullest little child; blue-eyed, sparkling face, had there not been a something, too, which said 'Eccovi—this child had been in hell.' Mrs. Carlyle appended, 'What wouldn't one give to have him in a box, and take him out to talk.' In Paris he saw Talma—"a heavy, shortish, numfooted man, face like a warming-pan for size, and with a strange, most ponderous yet delicate expression in the big, dull-glowing, black eyes and it. Incomparably the best actor I ever saw." Henry Drummond he was never tempted to become intimate with, though Drummond "now and then seemed willing enough: *Ex nihilo nihil fit*." The bookseller Murray is gibbeted so far as words can do it; in regard to the question of publishing 'Sartor Resartus' it "became apparent" to Carlyle that he was in the "position of a poor old man endeavoring to answer yes and no!" At the house of "a certain Captain Kenny" Carlyle once saw Godwin, "if that was anything." In early years he "honestly admired," in a loose way and as his neighbors were doing, "poor Jeffrey," but, he insists, "I seem to remember that I dimly rather felt that there was something trivial, doubtful, and not quite of the highest type in our Edinburgh admiration" for him and other local celebrities. Jeffrey is elaborately painted; he "oftener sniggered slightly than laughed in any way"; "would not talk of his experiences in the world . . . but was theoretic generally, and seemed bent on first of all converting me from what he called my 'German mysticism' back merely, as I could perceive, into dead Edinburgh whiggism, scepticism, materialism"; he was a great mimic, and "essentially he was always as if speaking to a jury"; in fine, was "So beautiful and radiant a little soul, plunged on the sudden into such a mother of (gilt) dead dogs!" and "it is certain there has no critic appeared among us since who was worth naming beside him." Mill was frequently a guest of the Carlyles, and of their visitors "one of the most interesting, so modest, ardent, ingenious, and so very fond of me at that time." He subsequently "introduced his Mrs. Taylor too, a very will-o'-wispish 'iridescence' of a creature; meaning no harm either." His own talk was "rather wintry ('sawdustish,' as old Sterling once called it) but always well-informed and sincere. The Mrs. Taylor business was becoming more and more of questionable benefit to him (we could see), but on that subject we were strictly silent, and he was pretty still." Mazzini and Carlyle soon tired of one another. Wellington he greatly admired, even as a parliamentary speaker "potent for conviction beyond any other." Erasmus Darwin he "rather preferred" to his brother Charles "for intellect." The 'Origin of Species' illustrated to him "the capricious stupidity of mankind; never could read a page of it, or waste the least thought upon it." We have no space for anything of the elaborate portraits of Southey and Wordsworth, the latter of which is by far the best piece of criticism in the volume, whether one agree with it or not (curiously enough, for "Wordsworth" "Carlyle" might be read in many places), but must make room for the following extract concerning the late Miss Martineau:

"Harriet had started into lionhood since our first visit to London, and was still much run after, by a rather feeble set of persons chiefly. She was not unpleasant to talk with for a little, though through an ear-trumpet, without which she was totally deaf. To admire her literary genius, or even her solidity of common sense, was never possible for either of us; but she had a sharp eye, an imperturbable self-possession, and in all things a swiftness of positive decision, which, joined to her evident loyalty of intention, and her frank, guileless, easy ways, we both liked. Her adorers, principally, not exclusively, 'poor whinnying old moneyed women in their well-hung broughams, otherwise idle,' did her a great deal of mischief, and indeed, as it proved, were gradually turning her fine clear head (so to speak) and leading to sad issues for her. Her talent, which in that sense was very considerable, I used to think would have made her a quite shining matron of some big female establishment—mistress of some immense dress-shop, for instance (if she had a dressing faculty, which perhaps she hadn't). . . . For the rest she was full of Nigger fanaticisms; admirations for (e.g.) her brother James (a Socinian preacher of due quality). The 'exchange of ideas' with her was seldom of behoof in our poor sphere, but she was practically very good."

To all these variously futile people Edward Irving, James Carlyle of Ecclefechan, and Carlyle's wife and her relatives form an agreeable contrast.

They are spoken of in great detail, and always with a touching affectionateness; but they have, as subjects for biography, the obvious disadvantage of not being popularly interesting. Moreover, what Carlyle here writes of them was never supervised by him, and consequently it is without the compensations he knew so well how to provide for the lack of interest in the subject apart from his treatment of it. There is nothing in the 200 pages devoted nominally to Irving which equals for pathetic force the briefthrenodical essay published at the time of Irving's death, nor indeed anything which adequately supplements it. The sketch of Mrs. Carlyle is not what he would have wished it, and upon the whole leaves an impression which he would have passionately deprecated—viz., that he honorably and absurdly overestimated her in some respects, though of course in others it was no more possible to do so than in the case of any good and bright woman. Candidly speaking, we were, for our own part, surprised to come upon such a "tribute" as this (p. 467): "Not all the Sands and Eliots and babbling *cohue* of 'celebrated scribbling women' that have strutted over the world in my time could, it seems to me, if all boiled down and distilled to essence, make one such woman." This is just the sort of thing we should have said Carlyle would *not* have written concerning his wife. Much of the sketch, however, must be regarded as mere material wholly unwinnowed, and possibly to this fact the magnifying of certain incidents as well as the general heightening must be attributed. For example (p. 349): "'Mamma, O mamma, don't expose me!' exclaimed she once, not yet got quite the length of speaking, when her mother for some kind purpose was searching under her clothes." The portrait of James Carlyle is not so interesting in itself as it might have been if written after instead of before the style of 'Sartor Resartus' was formed; but though it is not picturesque it is scrupulous and temperate, and doubtless all the more adapted to the end for which it is mainly valuable—viz., the light it throws upon Carlyle himself. No one, after reading this chapter, whether he has wasted the least thought upon "Darwin on Species" or not, can fail to be struck by the tremendous force which heredity and environment must have exerted upon him. It is by far the most important part of the book, and necessary to any one who would understand the strength and the limitations of his genius, and the really tragic obstruction of the former by the latter. His father, he maintains, had the greatest natural ability of any man he ever met, though he had never, for example, "read three pages of Burns's poems," nor probably of aught else save the Bible. To a filial son of such a man any talk of the individual's withering and the world's becoming more and more, could not but seem absurd.

SOME BOOKS ABOUT IRELAND.*

THERE is probably no country in the world the "condition" of which has been so much written upon as Ireland since Arthur Young described it in 1780. Since that time the stream of books, pamphlets, reports, and letters has been steady and unintermitting. There is hardly any man or woman who has ever visited Ireland, and has felt conscious of literary powers, who has not published something about it. Economists, historians, lawyers, novelists, missionaries, philanthropists, statisticians, caricaturists, have all tried their hand on it. About every five years since the Catholic Emancipation in 1830 it has been the custom of the London *Times* and some other leading English journals to send over "commissioners" to write letters about Ireland. About every ten years the Government of the day has appointed a commission to report on Ireland to both Houses of Parliament. All these tell substantially the same story. They differ somewhat as to the causes of Irish phenomena. Some lay all the blame of Irish misery on the priests; others lay it on the character of the people; others on the climate; but the majority, both in numbers and weight, have always confessed that it was the land system which was at the bottom of it—that it was even at the bottom of the bad traits of the Irish character. The books before us go over much the same ground as all their predecessors. Even that of Mr. Bence Jones, an unfortunate landlord who has been "boycotted," substantially confirms that of Mr. Russell; and Mr. Becker's confirms both the others. That Ireland cannot change markedly for the better under her present land-laws, is the one conclusion to be drawn from all these dismal pictures of poverty and turbulence. Why the proper remedy has not been tried sooner is well told in the last number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, by M. Leroy-Beaulieu, the French economist, in an article on the agrarian settlement so successfully made in Poland, in 1864, by Russia, through the instrumentality of two great administrators, Milutine and Tcherkasski.

"Milutine and Tcherkasski," says M. Leroy-Beaulieu, "were fond of saying that land reforms could alone give peace to Ireland. This opinion, little relished by the majority of Englishmen, is to-day that of most Radicals. . . . If Great Britain shrinks from this so much, it is not simply because

she fears to wound the religion of property; it is because, contrary to the Russian experience in Poland, it is among the landlords, among the landed aristocracy, that the British Government finds its strongest support in Ireland. The thing would probably have been done long ago if it was from the upper classes that the hostility came. Then, apart from her juridical scruples, England would run some risk of being called on to apply in Great Britain the processes to which she had resorted in the sister isle, while Russia began on her own soil the measures which she afterwards carried out in Poland. In some ways, one might say that Russia towards Poland, England towards Ireland, have pursued directly opposite courses: one giving what the other refused; each taking the conquered country from a different direction, and proceeding in a reverse order, but both incompletely, and consequently defectively. In Ireland England has too often thought she could meet every difficulty by the application of political liberty; in Poland Russia has too much flattered herself that economic reforms would suffice. In London it has been too much forgotten that peoples, like individuals, do not live on constitutional rights; in St. Petersburg the evangelical maxim that man does not live by bread alone has been too often forgotten. Each of the two Governments could give lessons to the other. Both have only performed part of their task, but the advantage seems to us decidedly on the side of Russia. However difficult it may appear, the political problem is in reality easier of solution and less urgent than the economical problem."

Mr. Russell is an Irishman enjoying a leading practice at the English bar and a member of the House of Commons, and his volume contains a series of letters published last winter in the London *Telegraph* and the Dublin *Freeman's Journal*, into which he put the results of a careful examination of the working of the present land system in the southwestern corner of the island, mainly the county of Kerry. His testimony was very disagreeable to many landlords as coming from a lawyer of high character and standing, but he easily overthrew all attempts to impeach it, and his book ran through two editions in as many weeks. The most important part of it is, however, the four chapters devoted to the consideration of remedies, in which he propounds a scheme of his own, in which the "three Fs" are leading features, and which he explains and defends with all the power given him by his professional position and experience. We know of nothing which comes nearer being a hand-book of the Irish question than his volume.

Mr. Bence Jones is a landlord, and, we believe, an Englishman, who has for the last forty years lived on an estate near Cork. His book is made up in the main of papers contributed to the English magazines on the social and economical condition of Ireland. He appears to have been an excellent farmer, and, if landlords were simply administrators and the tenants were serfs, would have made an excellent landlord. The papers in the volume, though somewhat rambling and full of wearisome repetitions, are so good a revelation of character that one is not surprised to find at the close that he has been "boycotted," and after forty years of thoroughly well-meaning activity has had to abandon his home under a shower of abuse from his tenants, which he amply repays. His confidence in his own wisdom, as well as in the rectitude of his intentions, finds a naïve expression all through his book, and shows clearly enough that the fundamental defect of the Irish land system lies in the fact that the great power of the landlords is exercised by a class possessing little or no social or intellectual sympathy with the tillers of the soil. To Mr. Jones the Irish tenant is an absurd and unreasonable creature, whose improvement in some places he pronounces hopeless, but in others considers possible if landlords can have their way and plenty of police to back up their authority. This view of the tenant may be true, but no man who holds it is fit to possess the power over his life and fortune which the landlord now possesses.

Mr. Becker, who reprints his letters from the *Daily News*, supplies a series of very striking pictures of society in the disturbed districts last winter, and they are drawn with an impartial hand, and with a keen appreciation of the difficulties and good points of both landlord and tenant. He has, too, that great essential of a traveller in Ireland, capacity to take in the humor of a situation, even at the cost of his own comfort. Such passages as these throw a flood of light on the Irish crisis. Speaking of the great drainage works set on foot in Clare by Mr. Mitchell Henry:

"Such works, as well as the reclamation of mountain and bog suggested and tried by Mr. Mitchell Henry for the benefit of peasant cultivators, are absolutely required to quicken the industry of the languishing West. The poor people here require to be taught many things; notably to obey orders, to mind their own business, to hold their tongues, and to wash themselves; but it is impossible to expect four such virtues as obedience, industry, silence, and cleanliness to be acquired all at once by people who have been neglected for centuries. But there can be no radical defect in them, for they work hard enough in America, and under strict taskmasters, too, for a Yankee farmer is like a Yankee skipper, inclined to pay good wages but to insist on the money being earned. So far as discipline is concerned, there is no better soldier or soldier-servant than a Western Irishman, none more patient under difficulty and privation, none so full of cheerfulness and resource. Probably the conditions of life are more favorable elsewhere, as they may easily be. Here in County Clare there seems to a perhaps too-hasty observer a complete want of social homogeneity. What lamps of refinement and intellectual culture burn here for each other only, and serve but to intensify the darkness around.

* 'New Views on Ireland. By Charles Russell, Q.C., M.P.' Second edition. London and New York: Macmillan & Co.

'The Life's Work in Ireland of a Landlord who tried to do his Duty. By W. Bence Jones.' Macmillan.

'Disturbed Ireland; being the Letters written during the Winter of 1880-81 by Bernard H. Becker, Special Commissioner of the *Daily News*.' Macmillan.

"In no part of Ireland that I have seen are class distinctions more sharply defined. The landholding gentry are, with but two or three exceptions, Protestants, and, with the exception of Lord Inchiquin, are of English, Scotch, or Dutch descent, as such names as Vandeleur, Crowe, Stacpoole, and Burton indicate."

"The gentry of the county, however, are nearly all Protestant, and it is curious to note on Sunday at Ennis how the masters and their families go to one church and their servants to another. I am not insinuating that there is any sectarian squabbling. There is not, for the simple reason that the two classes of gentry and tradesfolk are too far apart to come into collision. On one side of a broad line stand the lords of the soil, of foreign descent, of Protestant religion, of exclusive social caste; on the other stand the people, the shopkeepers, the greater farmers and the peasants, all of whom are Irish Roman Catholics, and bound to each other by the ties of common religion, common descent, and often of actual kinship. There is, excepting perhaps a dozen professional men, no middle class at all, through which the cultivation of the superior strata could permeate to the lower."

FRANCIS LIEBER.*

DR. LIEBER'S minor writings exhibit, as was to be expected, the same qualities which characterize the works on which his reputation is based. They are made up of papers on a variety of subjects, the more important of which are his recollections of Niebuhr, his reminiscences of the battle of Waterloo, a fragment on nationalism and internationalism, which has received high praise abroad, several essays on various constitutional and legal questions, and his "Fallacies of American Protectionists," one of his best pieces of controversial writing. Many of the papers were printed in Dr. Lieber's lifetime, and, therefore, are not when republished in this form likely to attract the attention which they would have received had they now appeared for the first time.

In attempting to form any estimate of Dr. Lieber's position as a publicist one is embarrassed by the difficulty that he belonged to no well-defined school. As between the historical and philosophical schools which divided Germany into hostile camps in his youth he occupied a neutral ground, and he came very early in life to the United States, where devotion to science had not reached the point of developing schools of any kind, and where it was quite enough that the new-comer should have an enthusiasm for learning. What Lieber would have been had he remained in Germany, it is now idle to attempt to enquire; indeed, it is impossible to imagine him remaining in his native country, for it was his most fundamental traits of mind and disposition which made him an exile. His reputation, too, is mainly American, for while his writings have been received abroad with respect, this was mainly because of the extraordinary favor they met with here in the first instance. Dr. Woolsey, for instance, declares that Lieber "influenced political thought more than any one of his contemporaries in the United States." Kent says that in reading Lieber he felt he had "a sure pilot, however dangerous the navigation." Choate told him that he almost always "dipped into" his writings in the preparation of his cases for trial, while Motley uses the following emphatic language: "I constantly come upon passages expressing more strikingly than I have ever found elsewhere great vital, momentous truths. . . . It is quite impossible for me to say how entirely I sympathize with everything I have read from your pen, and how much instruction I derive from your vigorous handling of the highest questions that can interest full-grown men."

There must have been something in Dr. Lieber's mind and character remarkably in harmony with the spirit and tendencies of his adopted country to earn for him a reputation like this, and unless we are greatly mistaken we shall have to look for it elsewhere than in his systematic or philosophical writings. Indeed we doubt very much whether there was any philosophical system at the basis of his political and ethical enquiries at all. His 'Civil Liberty' is full of valuable criticism and discussion of a whole range of political questions, in which the author's sound sense and complete familiarity with his subject are apparent at every turn, but in the analytical portion of the work he fails to exhibit a corresponding power. The definitions and fundamental ideas upon which he builds his superstructure do not seem to be really co-ordinate, living parts of the whole. To take one or two examples at random: in his chapter on "The Institution" he insists that the following are "necessary attributes of a complete institution":

"A system or an organic body of laws or usages forming a whole; of extensive operation, or producing widely spreading effects; working within a certain defined sphere; of a high degree of independent permanency; with an individual vitality, and an organism providing for its own independent action and frequently for its own development or expansion, or with autonomy; and with its own officers or members, because without these it would not be an actual system of laws, but merely a prescript in abeyance."

* 'Reminiscences, Addresses, and Essays.' By Francis Lieber, LL.D. Being Volume i. of his Miscellaneous Writings.
 * Contributions to Political Science, including Lectures on the Constitution of the United States, and other papers. By Francis Lieber, LL.D. Being Volume ii. of his Miscellaneous Writings. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1851.

It will be seen that this definition would include an ordinary corporation, like the Western Union Telegraph Company, or the Erie Railroad; and Dr. Lieber admits this. But such an extension of the term can hardly be of any great value for philosophical purposes, nor does it correspond with the common use of the word, but really almost gives to the term the slang sense in which it was formerly current in this country, and in which anything that powerfully affected the local imagination was put down as an "institution." In the 'Political Ethics,' which for the very reason that its aim is more philosophical than the 'Civil Liberty' has never had the same success, instances of the same peculiarity abound. The author's fundamental maxim, which he lays down as necessary to establish the "science of natural law," is: "I exist as a human being, therefore I have a right to exist as a human being." Natural law and ethics, he continues, are not the same. "Ethics treats, among other subjects, of the duties of man, and secondarily of his rights derivable from his duties; natural law, on the other hand, treats, as the fundamental and primary subject, of man's rights, and secondarily of his obligations flowing from each man's being possessed of the same rights." Having distinguished in this way natural law from ethics, he sets down as opposed to natural law "politics proper." "If natural law establishes the general right to property, namely, that it is founded in the unalterable and indispensable nature of man that exclusive possession of things belonging to the material world should be vested in individuals or individual societies; it is for politics proper to ascertain whether, under certain given circumstances, this general right of property is best secured by representative governments, by the trial by jury," etc. Then we reach Political Ethics, which, according to Dr. Lieber, is the body of ethical rules which guides the citizen in acting upon questions of politics proper—e.g., whether he should vote or not; whether and how far he should oppose the administration, disobey the law, etc. We confess our inability to follow this chain of reasoning. If the right to exist as a human being flows from the mere fact of existence, it would seem to be an absolute right, yet no one would be less disposed to admit this than Dr. Lieber; and his editor, Dr. Woolsey, is therefore compelled to add in a note: "It being, of course, understood what a human being is in all his relations, and what ought to take place when those relations are disturbed." The foundation of Dr. Lieber's system is essentially metaphysical, while as soon as we leave this and get into the region of "politics proper" and "political ethics" we find ourselves in the world of practical morality and expediency.

Dr. Lieber was, in fact, essentially a moralist and a utilitarian, and his interest in the questions which he examined was not that of a philosopher but of a practical man filled with an earnest desire for the advancement of humanity, a heartfelt love of liberty, and a warm detestation of arbitrary forms of government. In his youth he had suffered for his creed. He had fought in the Prussian lines at Waterloo, and he had afterwards been imprisoned by the Government he helped to defend because of his love for freedom; he had left his native country to help the Greeks secure their independence; at twenty-seven, when he might have been on the high road to fame and success in Germany, he was, for his conviction's sake, a penniless exile. These facts should not be overlooked in judging of his later career. To begin with, they earned him a wide-spread sympathy in this country at the outset of his career, and his powerful and comprehensive manner of dealing, not with theories, but with practical questions, soon brought him into harmony with the tone of thought prevailing in the United States. He was able to discuss the very questions of law and history about which American lawyers, American politicians, and American teachers were daily occupying themselves, and to do it with a fulness of learning which they rarely possessed. He thoroughly understood, not merely the American and English systems of government, but the Continental systems as well, and was consequently able to take a wider and more impartial survey of most practical questions than most of his American contemporaries. He understood and appreciated the excellences of his adopted country, but was never blind to its faults or peculiarities. Consequently he came to be regarded as an authority on practical questions, and his advice was taken by those engaged in the actual work of governing the country in a manner which must be regarded, considering the bias against foreign criticism of our "institutions" then prevalent, a very remarkable proof of the strong qualities of his mind and character, and, as we have said, of the fundamental sympathy between the tendencies of his mind and those which he found prevalent here.

Dr. Lieber will probably be longest known by his 'Hermeneutics' and his 'Rules for the Government of Armies in the Field.' The first has been referred to in terms of great praise by eminent lawyers, the second was adopted by Mr. Lincoln during the rebellion as a military code. In both of them the strong moral bent of the author's mind is very marked. It is not the nice points, the *apices juris* of interpretation and construction, that he cares about or closely examines. It is the broad, general principles which lie, or which ought to lie, at the basis of all interpretation. On military matters it is rather the most advanced and humane view of the rights and duties incident to a state of war, than an accurate enumeration and description of these rights and duties as they actually exist. Throughout his writings this tendency

to infuse a lofty tone into the examination of subjects generally treated in a manner uncolored by feeling is very marked. His well-known maxim, for instance, "No right without its duty; no duty without its right," should not be taken to be the expression of a fundamental principle of law. There are in reality many rights without corresponding duties and many duties without corresponding rights. It was rather an epigrammatic expression of the ethical truth that even the exercise of rights is subordinate to the moral law. Dr. Lieber never seems to have fully comprehended the distinction, now so completely recognized by all English publicists, between the domain of law, embracing the legal conception of rights, duties, and the attendant sanctions, and that of ethics. This fault, so noticeable now, wholly escaped the observation of his own generation, because it was shared by almost all the leading writers of the day. Kent, Story, and all their contemporaries had very antique and confused conceptions as to the relation between law and morals, and it was not by Germany that the key to the riddle was destined to be furnished. As we have said, however, the value of Dr. Lieber's writings is not mainly philosophical but practical. It was really the practical questions of politics and social reform in Europe and America that excited his interest; and it is remarkable, in looking through his writings now, to see how invariably his sound sense and experience brought him to conclusions on these now commonly accepted by the world as right.

CATTLE-RAISING ON THE GREAT PLAINS.*

WITHIN the past ten years the business of cattle-raising upon the great plains of the West, and in the broad valleys of the Rocky Mountains, has made most rapid progress. As the Indian has retreated before the advance of the white man, and been either exterminated or circumscribed within the limits of a gradually narrowing reservation, so the buffalo and antelope have met with a more swift and certain destruction at the hands of both red and white men, and their place is being rapidly filled by their civilized representatives, cattle and sheep. Powell, in his valuable report on the 'Lands of the Arid Region,' gives their area as more than four-tenths of the whole United States, excluding Alaska, and divides them into irrigable, timber, and pasturage lands, of which the last form by far the greatest proportion. Indeed, a more concise classification would make but two divisions—the mountain, or mining and timber regions, and the valley and plain, or grazing lands. The latter division, which comprises perhaps two-thirds of the entire area, is eminently suited to the raising of cattle on a large scale, being clothed—with the exception of certain desert areas, the dried-up beds of ancient lakes—with a somewhat sparse growth of highly nutritious grasses, which, owing to the dryness of the climate, are cured in the stalk, and form a standing hay which keeps through the winter. A comparatively small fraction only of this region, limited by its vicinity to streams furnishing sufficient water for purposes of irrigation, and to centres of population affording a market for its product, can be utilized for purposes of agriculture; the rest can be used only for stock-raising.

A theoretical guide as to the capabilities of this region for supporting cattle is afforded by the former range of the buffalo, whose bones are found as far west as Utah, Nevada, and Idaho, and practically the cattle business has been already proved a success in many and widely-separated localities. That all are not equally well suited to cattle-raising has, however, been abundantly proved by the experience of the past year, when, owing to the lateness of the summer rains, large areas seemed likely to be deprived of their wonted growth of grass, and unusually heavy snow-falls have so covered up what did grow that the winter's loss in cattle is likely to prove very serious in many quarters. Nevertheless, in spite of all such drawbacks, it is evident that the Rocky Mountain region is destined to be the cattle-raising country for the whole United States, from the fact that the lands are practically worthless for other purposes and under the present land system cannot be sold. The farmer of the Mississippi Valley or of the East, who is obliged not only to pay for land but also to feed his cattle during the winter, can hardly compete successfully with the Western ranchman, who lets his vast herds roam over the public domain and feed themselves during the winter on the hay which nature has cured for them.

Reliable figures as to the number of cattle in the country are impossible to obtain: firstly, because the ranchman rarely, if ever, has an opportunity of getting all his cattle together at once, so as to count them; and, secondly, because, taxes being high and assessed so much per head upon stock, it is for his interest to make as small a return as possible to the assessor, and the latter has no means of determining whether his return be correct or not. A very close approximation will, however, be shortly furnished by the labors of the Tenth Census, the subject of Meat Production having been placed by General Walker under the charge of Mr. Clarence Gordon, who either in person or by

his assistants has visited all the cattle-producing regions and made a careful investigation into all the phases of this important industry. There seems, at all events, to be little likelihood of over-production, as cattle can hardly increase faster than our population, swelled as it is by an ever-growing immigration, while our exports of live cattle, already very considerable, will be greatly augmented as soon as the necessary sanitary regulations for controlling the spread of disease are adopted by Congress, and the unfavorable restrictions, arising from the want of such regulations, now imposed upon American cattle by European nations are removed.

The occupation of the ranchman, or "cow-puncher," as he is familiarly known in the West, is one which, while it involves no small amount of physical hardship, possesses the great fascination of an open-air life on horse-back, full of adventure, and having a pleasant spice of danger. These attractions, heightened by the stories of enormous profits made in the business in former years with little or no capital, lure every year an increasing number of young men from the East, glad to escape the routine of city life, and expecting with the investment of a few hundred, or perhaps thousand, dollars to return millionaires, after a few pleasant years spent in the saddle. Such expectations the little book of General Brisbin is admirably calculated to encourage. It is a curious jumble of good and bad material, gathered here and there during a period of twelve years, and hastily put together, without much order except in the headings of the chapters. Lists of ranchmen and their holdings in cattle or sheep, seductive estimates of profits in the raising of horses, cattle, and sheep, which may have been true ten years ago but are valueless now except as a record of what has been, are given throughout the volume. Letters, more or less pertinent to the subject, abound from army officers, governors, Congressmen, and stockmen, and these give to the volume a certain flavor of the 'Campaign Life,' in which the author's pen has been so busy. Yet while eight lines are admitted with the signature of Senator Conkling, Mr. Hewitt, whose testimony might have been more valuable, at least on the subject of bull-calves, has been neglected. Still, the book contains a great deal of valuable information, and may be read with profit by all who are interested in the great business of which it treats, provided they bear in mind the fact that nothing is so liable to lie as figures. The illustrations, though not referred to in the text, are truthful and characteristic.

Mr. Hayes devotes two of his interesting sketches, which, by the way, are illustrated by most excellent wood-cuts, to a lively and picturesque description of the cattle and sheep business in Southern Colorado, and while the region he visited hardly represents in fairness the whole cattle-growing region, owing to conditions with regard to the ownership of land which are not found elsewhere, his estimates of profits are much more modern and trustworthy than those of General Brisbin. Neither writer has touched upon the important question of what disposition our Government will make of these vast pastures, which form the greater part of the public domain yet undisposed of. The cattle-raiser on the Plains estimates that he requires ten acres for every head of stock he owns, and he cannot afford to buy them (if there were any regulation by which he could get the amount he needs) at the present minimum price of \$1 25 per acre. Unless, then, some change is made in the laws, by which these lands may be sold in large tracts, say at ten or fifteen cents per acre, or leased, as in Australia, at a low rental, they will bring no income to the Government, and continue to be occupied, as now, by whoever first secures the water-fronts. The present system is more economical to the stock-man so long as the ranches are as widely spaced as at present; but with the rapid expansion of the business, when the country becomes more thickly occupied, the courtesy now observed by ranchmen of respecting each other's possessory title will no longer be maintained by new-comers, and conflicts will inevitably arise.

Success in the cattle business, as in all others, requires a certain natural aptness for the manner of life it involves, as well as hard work, good system, and a thorough acquaintance with all its details. Moreover, under present conditions, it requires the investment of a fairly large capital, say \$25,000 to \$50,000. With less than this the necessary expenses will make serious inroads upon the profits. It is, further, essentially a personal business; the cattle-owners are very dependent upon the faithfulness of their "cowboys," and, in a much larger degree than in almost any other business, is a certain amount of personal attachment necessary on the part of the employed towards the employer. For this reason the success of carrying it on as an incorporated company seems very doubtful; there can be no personal attachment toward a soulless corporation. On the other hand, with wise management its risks are small, and the returns comparatively certain.

Sight: An Exposition of the Principles of Monocular and Binocular Vision. By Joseph Le Conte, LL.D. International Scientific Series. (New York: Appletons.)—Were a denizen of another system to visit our world and ask to be shown the most perfect specimens of the earthly industry both of nature and of man, probably no more favorable "exhibit" could be made than the apparatus of visual perception on the one hand, and our recent scientific

* 'The Beef Bonanza: or, How to get Rich on the Plains.' By General James S. Brisbin, U.S.A., author of 'Borden, the White Chief,' 'Life of General Grant,' 'Life of J. A. Garfield,' 'Life of General W. S. Hancock.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1874.
'New Colorado and the Santa Fe Trail.' By A. A. Hayes, Jr., A.M. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1880.

explorations into it on the other. The eye is a small organ, but just as in medicine it forms a little microcosm within the microcosm, wherein the most varied morbid processes may be most exquisitely studied, so among the achievements of man's intellect the knowledge of its functions has been reached by the most varied display of different powers. In Helmholtz's great work on physiological optics it is impossible to know what most to admire, the mathematical profundity, the mechanical inventiveness, the experimental originality, the subtle psychological observation, or the erudition. It seems a pity that England, which led off so brilliantly the modern era in optics with Wheatstone's truly classical memoir on the stereoscope in 1838, should since then have been so completely distanced by Holland and Germany, in which countries almost all subsequent progress has been made. It is pleasant, under these circumstances, to find an American book which can rank with the very best of foreign works on the subject. Professor Le Conte has long been known as an original investigator in this department; and though in this little work he leaves many topics untouched, all that he gives us is treated with a master hand.

The study of visual perceptions leads right into the most disputed depths of psychology. Here, we regret to say, Professor Le Conte has refused to penetrate. We sorely need in English a book which shall not only expound but help to settle the great quarrel between the Intellectualists and the Sensationalists in vision, or, as Helmholtz prefers to call them, the Empiricists and the Nativists, or, in the still newer language of Hering, the Spiritualists and the Physiologists—strange conjunctions of epithets, for which Helmholtzians and Heringites would, perhaps, not be bad equivalents. Professor Le Conte seems, strangely enough for such a master of the subject, to be quite unversed in the German part of its literature, so he helps us not at all. The Nativists think that with every retinal impression a determinate outward perception is connected by an invariable and ultimate law, so that all the spatial determinations of the things we see—size, shape, distance—are in the last analysis simple optical sensations. The "Empiricists" say that were this so we should always be obliged, on getting the same retinal impression, to perceive the same identical object. But it is notorious—and the study of optical illusions in particular (a study which Professor Le Conte has not entered into at all) richly illustrates the point—that an identical retinal impression will arouse widely different perceptions in all these particulars, according as other accompanying impressions are present or absent. Helmholtz says, as Reid said before him, that if the retinal impression had a fixed space sensation of its own attached to it, the accompanying circumstances could not make this latter change its character, for a true sensation is an irreducible fact of consciousness which nothing can reverse or obscure. Helmholtz and Wundt conclude from the ambiguous spatial import of our eye-feelings that our space perceptions are higher intellectual conclusions, for which these sensations only serve as suggesters or signs. The eye-feelings, in an oft-quoted phrase of Helmholtz, are but signs whose objective meaning is left to the interpretation of the intellect. This is why the "Empiricist" school in optics has been welcomed with such acclamations by all the "A-priorists" in philosophy. The notion of an Intellect unconsciously making inferences, even down in the depths of what seem mere passive feelings of color and shape, could not but please all whose prejudices were in favor of the mind's productive activity.

We, for our part, think the quarrel is not settled yet, but that there is every likelihood it will be settled rather in favor of the school of Hering than of Helmholtz. We have native and fixed spatial optical sensations, but experience leads us to select certain ones from among them as the exclusive bearers of reality. The rest become mere signs and suggesters of these. But, be the upshot what it may, Professor Le Conte, as far as he goes, is one of Hering's allies. He holds firm to the fixed physiological existence of corresponding points on the retina, which cannot be made under any circumstances to see double. He seems himself to be a great proficient in the seeing of double images, an art which, as Hering says, is not to be learned in one year or in two: "In stereoscopic diagrams it is always possible to detect the doubling on which the perception of depth of space is based. It is a little more difficult in ordinary stereoscopic pictures and in natural scenes; but practice and close observation will always detect it in these also." Professor Le Conte gives an admirable original formulation of the direction in which objects in binocular vision appear to be situated—those seen single as well as those seen double. It is too technical for statement here, and, indeed, would be unintelligible without a diagram. But we may say that it constitutes an important advance over all previous attempts in the same direction, uniting all the facts, so far as we can discover, in a single generalization. He rectifies the widespread error of supposing that the eyes fall into convergence when they are closed. They diverge, on the contrary; and he might have proved this by a simple experiment which every reader can perform: When, after looking at anything with one eye, we open the closed one, the thing seems to start nearer to us, the reason being that the eye at the moment of opening has to converge to see the object, and in our ordinary life this necessity of convergence occurs whenever the object we are looking at really does

approach us. The judgment we make on opening the shut eye is one of those unconscious inferences from an eye-sensation to its usual outward cause of which Helmholtz speaks.

The only defect in the book is, as we said before, incompleteness. It is rather amusing, for instance, to be told by Professor Le Conte that Meissner and he are the only persons who have noticed the axial rotation of the eye-balls in convergence. But, after all, Professor Le Conte is a geologist, and such a gift-horse from him as this essay on vision ought not to be too closely looked in the mouth.

The Poetry of Astronomy: A Series of Familiar Essays on the Heavenly Bodies. By Richard A. Proctor. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1881. 8vo, pp. viii.-447.)—The books which bear the name of Mr. Proctor upon their title-page bid fair to become like the stars of which he writes for multitude. The present one is a republication of a dozen articles from various English magazines. He has given the collection the general title of 'The Poetry of Astronomy,' and it indicates, we suppose, his idea of the poetical part of the science. Taking the volume as a sample, we infer that astronomical poetry has three chief characteristics. First, as to its form, it is very respectable prose, sometimes a little careless, and sometimes a little clumsy; secondly, as to substance, astronomical poetry deals with matters about which we know next to nothing, yet they may be so presented as to lead one to suppose that the author or poet knows a great deal; and lastly, it deals with enormous numbers. If by chance it ever mentions anything less than millions, we must attribute the anomaly to the fact that even Homer sometimes nods. The book contains numberless hypotheses, and not a few corrections and retractions of former hypotheses; for Mr. Proctor discards an old theory with almost as much ease as he produces a new one. The "might be" of his spring article yields to the "may be" of his summer book; this in turn gives way to the "probably" of his autumn treatise, and all are deftly contrived to excite curiosity to see the "reasonable expectation" of his winter volume. Mr. Proctor's first article (perhaps we ought to call it "poem") treats of the "Age of the Sun and Earth," and occupies forty-two pages. The first eleven are introductory. Near the beginning of the twelfth the following is parenthetically inserted:

("Much that immediately follows here is simply translated into popular language from a very interesting article by Mr. Croll in the *Quarterly Journal of Science* for July, 1877.")

Mr. Proctor's "immediately follows here" includes the larger part of the remaining thirty-one pages of the essay. Though no very definite conclusion as to the age of the sun or earth is arrived at, the essay very strikingly illustrates one of the ways of making up a book.

It would be unprofitable to discuss any of Mr. Proctor's hypotheses, more especially because the preface is dated last August, and by this time another volume must be imminent; and, perhaps, before the *Nation* finds room to point out what seems erroneous Mr. Proctor will have done it himself. However, it may be interesting to our readers to give some account of one of the essays. The fourth (pp. 144-182) is entitled "Is the Moon Dead?" Mr. Proctor answers the question very decidedly in the affirmative; and as he published a few years ago a treatise on the moon, he is evidently a proper person to give us some account of the principal events in her career, as is usually done in obituaries of important personages. Mr. Proctor tells us not only that the moon is dead, but, in accordance with the poetry of astronomy, she has been dead many millions of years. The exact date of her demise is uncertain. She was born long before the earth, and passed through the various stages of planetary life much more rapidly. Perhaps we can best give an idea of Mr. Proctor's account of the relation of the life of the moon to that of the earth by a comparison. Travellers tell us that the women of certain parts of the torrid zone pass through the various stages of human life much more rapidly than those of more temperate climates. They are born, married, and bear children, and are then overtaken by the wrinkles and frosts of age at a time of life when, reckoning by years, their sisters of cooler climes are still radiant with all the charms of maidenhood. So the moon was not only born long before the earth, but she passed through any given period of her existence in a much shorter time. Mr. Proctor thinks it probable that one of these periods corresponded to the present life-bearing period of the earth, but it passed long ago, and was of much shorter duration than we may reasonably expect the present life-bearing period of the earth to be. Nevertheless, the time will come when the earth will be as the moon now is; her oceans and her atmosphere will have been swallowed up within the recesses of her own body; all living things, animal and vegetable, will have disappeared, and she will roll on an inert mass. For many other points incidentally discussed in the course of the essay we must refer our readers to the book itself. If we shall seem to any of them to have treated Mr. Proctor's book somewhat lightly, we can only reply that it seems to us very dry poetry and very uncertain science. Many of the matters treated are mentioned by Profs. Newcomb and Holden in their treatise on astronomy, the chief differ-

rence between them and Mr. Proctor being that theories which the learned professors regard as suggested rather than supported by ascertained facts are regarded by Mr. Proctor as "almost certain," or "very nearly demonstrated"—until his next book appears.

Life of Beethoven. By Louis Nohl. Translated from the German by John J. Lalor. (Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. 1881.)—Musical biography labors under two conspicuous disadvantages: the customary absence of interesting details in the lives of eminent musicians, and the lack of biographers who have sufficient literary resources to use to the best advantage what materials their subjects afford. Another difficulty arises from the fact that writing of any sort about music is apt to seem to the casual reader either very abstruse or a little crazy. To write technically about it is to render one's self unintelligible to all but musicians; to attempt descriptive writing is to run the risk of rhapsodizing; to try what may be called the emotional analysis of music is to offer a direct and perilous challenge to ridicule and cynicism. If Herr Nohl has not entirely succeeded in his task it is partly because of its almost insurmountable inherent difficulties. He has, to be sure, made his undertaking more difficult than it need have been by endeavoring not merely to give an account of Beethoven's external life, but of his spiritual existence as well, and to trace throughout in parallel lines the history of his professional work and of his sentimental and religious life. This leads to some curious results, and particularly to an account of the Ninth Symphony which we cannot help feeling would cause some amusement in the mind of a composer gifted, as Beethoven was, with a keen sense of humor. He adopts the "interpretation" of the work given by Wagner on the occasion of its representation in 1846 in Dresden as "entirely warranted." This interpretation connects it with Faust, and insists that it represents the "tragic course of human existence." Herr Nohl then proceeds to develop Wagner's idea as follows:

"What was there of which life had not deprived him? The words it had always addressed to him were these words from Faust: *Entbehren sollst du, sollst entbehren* (Renounce thou must, thou must renounce). He now wished to paint a full picture of this vain struggle with relentless fate in tones, and what he had just gone through in his own experience enabled him to do it in living colors. All the recollections of his youth crowded upon him. There were the 'pretty, lively blonde' whom he had met in Bonn; Countess Giulietta, who had a short time before returned to Bonn with her husband; and his 'distant loved one' in Berlin. A promenade through the lovely Heiligenstadt Valley, in the spring of 1823, brought to his mind anew pictures of the reconciling power of nature, as well as of the *Pastorale*, and the C minor symphony. He was now able to form an idea of their common meaning, and to put an interpretation on them very different from his first idea and first interpretation of them. He began to have a much deeper insight into the ultimate questions and enigmas of existence" (pp. 154, 155).

This, however, is plain, straightforward criticism compared to what ensues. According to Herr Nohl, what we "learn most clearly" from the Ninth Symphony is this:

"From the dark abyss of nothing arises the Will, infinite Will; and with it the struggles and the sorrow of life. But it is no longer personal sorrow—for what is personal sorrow compared with the sorrow of the world as known to a great mind, experienced by a great heart?—it is the struggle for a higher existence, which we 'mortals have to engage in against the infinite Spirit.' . . . In the Ninth Symphony we hear the voices of the powers which through all ages have been the makers of history; of the powers which preserve and renovate the life of humanity; and so the Will, the Intellect, Man, after a terrible effort and concentration of self, stands firmly before us, bold and clear-eyed—for Will is the world itself" (p. 156).

These remarks about the will may be a very true and accurate expression of a metaphysical principle; but what have they to do with the "pretty, lively blonde," the Countess Giulietta, the Heiligenstadt Valley, or the Symphony in C minor? The truth is that there is an entire anachronism in applying this method of criticism. It has an unpleasant flavor of modern concert and "programme" music, and is as inappropriate in the case of Beethoven as the old metaphysical German method of explaining "Hamlet" was in the case of Shakspeare. No one, even in Germany, would think of criticising Bach, or Haydn, or any other writer of "pure music" in this way, and while there may not be such a vast gulf between the composer of the Ninth Symphony and the modern school as there is between the latter and the earlier writers we have mentioned, there is still far too wide a chasm to admit of Herr Nohl's bridging it in the extraordinary way the extracts we have made suggest.

There is no doubt a close connection between the life and the musical compositions of Beethoven. It was because he had felt and suffered all there is in life to feel or suffer that he was able to strike chords more full of emotion and pathos than have ever been struck before or since. Herr Nohl's volume is valuable as giving a vivid picture of his painful life from the time when, in order that he might early help to provide the means of subsistence for his drunken father, he was cruelly taken away from his childish playmates and forced with brutal severity to perform tasks which

would have been beyond the capacity of most grown men; through the period of his maturity, when almost every prize of life was alternately placed just within his grasp and then ruthlessly snatched away; down to his forlorn and unhappy end. It is a memorable life in the history of art, filled to the brim with the pain and misery and wretchedness which seem so often to be the toll exacted by fate from genius, but leaving behind it something so immeasurably fine and beautiful that we cannot but feel that for its sake the price is not too great.

The Liability of Directors and other Officers and Agents of Corporations; illustrated by leading Cases and Notes. By Seymour D. Thompson. (St. Louis: William H. Stevenson. 1880.)—Mr. Thompson is already favorably known to lawyers by his work on the Liability of Stockholders, which we reviewed in these columns some time since. His present work has been written on a different plan. A number of cases are published in full and are followed by long notes containing a collection of all the authorities. Mr. Thompson's work is always so well done that we dislike to find any fault with it, but we must say that we think this new system of writing law-books—for the introduction of which he is in a large measure responsible—is a poor one. Fully nine-tenths of the volume is taken up with decisions of courts, accessible elsewhere and no more necessary to be printed in full than many of the cases considered in the notes. There is, moreover, an appendix containing a quantity of statutory provisions which are entirely out of place in a text-book. In his preface he says that these will prove useful for reference, but we are strongly inclined to believe that no reader of the book will think so; any one who desires to ascertain what recent legislation exists upon a particular subject will never consult a work of this sort to get at it, for the obvious reason that the volumes issued by the State itself are the only books which can be cited or relied upon as containing the *ipsissima verba* of the legislature. The leading cases are accessible in the volumes of reports, and many of them are really not sufficiently important to justify their being reprinted in full anywhere save in a magazine or review as the basis of a dissertation upon the law. To take a single instance, the case of *Sperling's Appeal* turns on the liability of directors for the mismanagement of corporate funds through improper investments. The case was decided by the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania and is no doubt a leading case in that State, but it has been severely criticised elsewhere; it is not a very well considered case, and is really more likely to mislead anybody as to the general condition of the law on the subject than to clear it up.

There is no branch of the modern law of corporations which is more unsettled than that which relates to the liability of directors. If it were possible in such a case as this to make an application of Sir Henry Maine's distinction between contract and status, many of the legal relations growing out of the law of corporations would be put down as mainly falling under the latter head. The rights and duties of these relations appear to proceed from the position assumed (this position being, temporarily at least, fixed), and not from any bargain or contract, express or implied. Whether, however, directors are to be regarded strictly as trustees, or as agents, or as both together, or whether they come within that vague class known as mandatories; when they are responsible to the corporation, when to stockholders, and when to creditors, and for what acts they are responsible—all these are matters involved in a haze of conflicting decisions, which is constantly productive of much confusion and litigation. For the past twenty-five years the tendency both of legislation and judicial decision has been to increase and make more stringent the liability of directors. So far has this been carried that in this State, if not in others, trustees of savings-banks have been made criminally responsible to fine and imprisonment for careless management of the funds entrusted to them, while statutes making directors liable for waste of funds through improper dividends are of very common occurrence. What the legislature enacts on these subjects is comparatively easy to ascertain, but the position of the courts with regard to duties of directors and trustees of corporations is by no means a simple matter to get at. A really good book on this subject is a great desideratum, and it should, as we have suggested, be written in a different manner from that pursued by Mr. Thompson in the present treatise. It should be based upon a very profound and thorough examination of the whole subject, and the decisions should be collated for the purpose of extracting from them, if possible, the governing principles on which they are based. Great difficulty has been introduced into the matter of recent years by the fusion of the systems of law and equity, and the consequent mingling in the same court of rights and remedies which would formerly have been entirely distinct and separate.

Honolulu. Sketches of Life, Social, Political, and Religious, in the Hawaiian Islands from 1828 to 1861. By Laura Fish Judd. With a supplementary sketch of events to the present time. (New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 1881. 12mo, pp. xiv.-258.)—More than three hundred works devoted entirely or in considerable part to the Hawaiian Islands, as voyages,

travels, histories, and scientific monographs, have been published in various languages. Of miscellaneous papers in periodicals the number is much larger; and by including the books, mostly translations into the native language, that have been made in Honolulu, we shall have a Hawaiian bibliography of not less than two thousand five hundred titles. Mrs. Judd's memoirs are the latest addition to this considerable list, and are among the more valuable of the many missionary writings that it contains. They do not form a full or a connected history of the islands, nor of the "Caucasian" Polynesian (as Judge A. Fornander and Mr. A. H. Keane, in their recent important studies, propose to call the Hawaiian); but they are useful *mémoires pour servir*, being written from a much more intimate knowledge of the people, and describing a longer residence, than that of most writers upon the islands. The period of thirty-three years covered by these memoirs is that during which missionary ascendancy reached its highest point, and during which the complete transformation of the people from feral to tamed creatures was accomplished, at the cost of one-half the population of the unhappy group; 70,000 souls out of 140,000, during the period named, having been civilized and Christianized out of existence. It is not, of course, with this aspect of the results of missionary work that the missionary writers greatly concern themselves; but upon the subjects concerning which the late author had special opportunities of knowledge she has recorded much that was worth recording, as, principally, the growth and establishment of the present form of the Hawaiian Government, and the story of the struggles and difficulties which attended it, as well as of the French and English interferences. An interesting account is given of the embassy to Europe in 1849-50, when Dr. Judd accompanied the young native princes to Paris and London. The narrative recalls the one prefixed to Lord Geo. Anson Byron's 'Voyage of the *Blonde*' (1827), which describes the appearance of their predecessors, Kamehameha II. and his queen, when, at "a large assembly at Mr. Secretary Canning's," there was a "bustle and crowding round of a well-dressed mob to look at the strange king and queen and nobles; but the laughter ready for the royal strangers soon died away when it was perceived that not the slightest embarrassment or awkwardness was displayed by them, and that the king knew how to hold his state, and the *alii*s to do their service, as well as if they had practised all their lives in European courts." With regard to the religious troubles between Catholic and Protestant, Mrs. Judd's statement is naturally *ex parte*; the reader who wishes to hear the other side may be referred to Tournafond's recent 'Histoire de l'établissement du Catholicisme dans Hawaii' (Paris, 1877).

Mrs. Judd's style is occasionally touched with feminine animosities; but discreet suppressions in the MS. will be divined by the reader who may chance to be familiar with the events of the period covered. The book has evidently found a careful editor; it contains scarcely a misprint, even among the Hawaiian names, from beginning to end.

Troy: its Legend, History, and Literature; with a Sketch of the Topography of the Troad in the light of recent investigation. By S. G. W. Benjamin, M.A., Author of 'The Turk and the Greek,' 'Epochs of Ancient History,' etc. With map. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. 179.)—It was a very good idea of Mr. Benjamin to gather into one connected narrative all the scattered scraps of tradition relating to the siege of Troy, and he has done the work well. We are so accustomed to associate Troy with Homer that it is hard to realize how small a proportion of the entire story is related by him; one is surprised, too, to see how well his story is supplemented by other writers, and on the whole how complete and continuous a narrative can be made out of it. There are eighty-five pages given here to the early history and the siege of Troy, and only thirty-six of these are devoted to the events of the 'Iliad'; moreover, even in these thirty-six pages a considerable amount of detail is derived from other authors. We are surprised, however, to find the latter referred to only by name, and never with a precise indication of the passage cited. This deprives the book of much of its value for students. Few persons are so situated as to be able to pick up a bit here and a bit there, as Mr. Benjamin has done, and make a connected mosaic of them; but there are many who would take satisfaction in following his tracks and seeing the precise form in which the several parts of the story are presented. A single chapter of thirteen pages gives the account of the events that followed the fall of Troy—the wanderings of Ulysses, Diomedes, Æneas, the fate of Ajax, Agamemnon, Helen, etc. It seems a mistake not to present this fascinating group of stories with the same fullness as the single story of Troy. Perhaps the reason is that they are found in a connected form in the works of Homer, Æschylus, Virgil, etc., so that to tell them would be hardly more than to transcribe from these masterpieces. This is no doubt true to a greater extent than in the case of the story of the 'Iliad.' Even here, however, it would be well worth while to gather together the fragments of tradition that are scattered through Greek and Roman literature; it would have made a second part of the book hardly inferior in interest to the first, and we hope that some time Mr. Benjamin will undertake it. As it is, he has given us an interesting and valuable second part,

but wholly diverse in character from the first part, and much less original. This is a discussion of the Homeric question in all its phases, from the personality and birthplace of the poet to the site of the city. We notice that he says nothing of the controversy in which many of us were interested several years ago, as to the proper manner of translating Homer; in a complete treatise on the Homeric question Matthew Arnold's delightful essays and Francis William Newman's peculiar theories should certainly find a place. As for the substance of this part, we have little fault to find. The author agrees, on the whole, with Mr. Grote in his theory of the "Achilleis," and gives hearty credit to Dr. Schliemann for discovering the true site of Troy. We think Professor Geddes's hypothesis deserves more attention than it receives; certainly, if one holds—as our author does—that the 'Odyssey' was by the author of the 'Iliad,' and at the same time that the 'Iliad' consists of two wholly distinct parts, it is a by no means improbable theory that the 'Odyssey' was by the author of the smaller portion of the 'Iliad'—the *Iliad* proper—rather than by the author of the longer Achilleis.

We fancy that for a few pages in the middle of the book the proof-reader was nodding. We find (p. 103) Mohamet; (p. 107) Welcher, for Welcker, and Himæra; (p. 108) Coephore; (p. 109) Philoctes; (p. 110) Dioclesian; (p. 112) Alfieri. On page 2 there appear to have been two *Hes*, one the son of Dardanos, the other the son of Tros. On page 23 we wish we knew what precise relationship is meant by "Son of Hercules on the maternal side." There is an excellent map, but there ought to be also a plan to illustrate Schliemann's discoveries. Like all books of this series it has a good index.

Cervantes. By Mrs. Oliphant. "Foreign Classics for English Readers." (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.)—For this excellent little work Mrs. Oliphant deserves the gratitude of a large class of readers who know Cervantes only by the adjective with which he has enriched our language—a word the meaning of which is pretty clearly understood by thousands who never read a page of 'Don Quixote.' Of all who have written lives of the immortal Spaniard probably no one has had so little original acquaintance with the subject as the present biographer, and yet no one has produced, in English at least, so vivid and correct a picture of him. She has, to quote one of her critics, made him as well known as any one of the heroes of her own novels. Indeed, the romantic career of the soldier, captive, and man of letters could not be dull in the hands of a writer of such good taste and literary judgment as Mrs. Oliphant. The best part of her book is the biographical, and particularly the episode of Cervantes's captivity in Algiers. A fair idea of his various works is given, but too much attention is bestowed on those which are of small literary and biographical importance, thus restricting the space allotted to the author's masterpiece. All mention of one of his questionable stories might have been omitted; its authenticity is dubious, but, even were it genuine, we think Mrs. Oliphant would have passed it over in silence had she known its true character. Her chief fault is an insufficient acquaintance with Spain and Spanish literature, which leads her to regard Cervantes too much as an isolated appearance and to attempt to explain his works by inadequate theories which are not original with her. Thus, it is not correct to suppose that the dramas referring to life in Algiers were written to arouse Spain to a new crusade. Nor is the explanation of 'Don Quixote' satisfactory: Cervantes himself, in no ambiguous terms, has stated his object, and, as Mr. Ticknor has already observed, it is hard that the word of such a man cannot be taken as final. Mrs. Oliphant's mistake has prevented her from furnishing the most necessary preparation for an understanding of 'Don Quixote'—viz., some account of the romances of chivalry and their great vogue. Without intending to do so, Mrs. Oliphant has represented Cervantes's poverty as mean and degrading. He was poor, without doubt, but there was nothing ignoble in his poverty, and the closing years of his life were more serene than the reader of the present sketch would infer. We have remarked a number of minor errors, generally due to Mrs. Oliphant's sources (or source, for besides Ticknor she cites only Émile Chasles), whose errors she has unconsciously copied. Such are the following: *cantarelo* for *cantareva*, is incorrectly translated "sink" (it is a shelf for holding water-jars); Cervantes's wife was Catalina de Palacios Salazar y Vozmediano, not "Palazos y Salazar y Vozmediano"; and the literal translation of 'El Trato de Argel' is "The Treatment of Algiers," and not "The Commerce or Traffic in Algiers" (the meaning, of course, is, "Life" or "Manners in Algiers").

Health. By W. H. Corfield, M.A., M.D., F.R.C.P. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1880. 16mo, pp. viii.-361.)—Nineteen popular lectures on anatomy, physiology, hygiene, and pathology make up this volume. Of the two subjects first named the account given is elementary, while the lectures upon lighting, warming, ventilation, and the health of the individual address themselves to the informed reader and even to the expert, although in style they are completely untechnical. The lecture on ventilation in particular is the best popular account of the subject, in space as brief, that we have seen; the half-dozen contrivances described (pp. 224-230) for the ventilation, with-

out draught, of rooms are simple and practicable, and should be more widely known than they are. Dr. Corfield's descriptions of the small-pox and of other communicable diseases are examples of sound science in popular form; but, on the other hand, in the lectures on "Foods and Drinks" he has failed to discriminate between the greatly differing values of fermented and of distilled liquors in the dietary.

The Men of the Backwoods. True Stories and Sketches of the Indians and Indian Fighters. By Ascott R. Hope. Illustrated by C. O. Murray. (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1880.)—Mr. Hope has collected in this volume most of the good stories of early backwoods life, and retold them in an entertaining manner. The book is intended for boys, but may be read with interest by any one who loves stories of adventure in the wilderness: The author has divided the volume into two parts, the first of which is de-

voted to the white men, the second to the Indians; and without observing an exact historical order, he has so arranged his sketches as to trace through the half-century during which a constant struggle was going on with the Western Indians the principal events which characterized it, from the first appearance of the settlers in the valley of the Ohio to the fall of Tecumseh. The concluding chapters give a great deal of valuable information about the red man's religion, manners, and ordinary way of life, which has apparently been derived from books of authority.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Baldwin (J.), Art of School Management.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Fitch (J. G.), Lectures on Teaching.....(Cambridge, Eng.)
Forbes (A.), Glimpses through the Cannon-Smoke.....(J. R. Osgood & Co.)
Horstmann (C.), Altenglische Legenden, new series, swd.....(Gehr. Henninger)
McCarthy (Mrs. E. M.), Spirit of Education.....(C. W. Bardeen) \$1 25
Metternich (R.), Memoirs of Prince Metternich, 1815-20, vols. iii., iv.....(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 5 00
Pierce (E. L.), The Law of Railroads.....(Little, Brown & Co.) 6 00

Fyffe's History of Modern Europe.

Vol. I. Large 12mo, \$2 50.

Sister Augustine: An Old Catholic.

12mo, \$1 75.

The Leaden Casket:

A Novel. By Mrs. A. W. Hunt. 16mo (Leisure-Hour Series), \$1.

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By Terence McGrath. 16mo (Leisure-Hour Series), \$1.

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146 Tremont Street, Boston.

LETTER to the Editor of the New York *Nation* relative to Certain Slanders of the New York *Evening Post*. By Fitzedward Hall, M.A. Harvard College, Hon. D.C.L. Oxford. Printed for the author. London: 1881. (Pamphlet, pp. 28.) Sent, post-paid, on receipt of twelve cents, by CHARLES L. WOODWARD, 78 Nassau Street, New York.

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The regular sale of tickets will begin at the University Bookstore in Cambridge, and at 146 Tremont Street in Boston, on Monday, April 4, at 10 A.M.

The text of the "Œdipus Tyrannus," in Greek and English, will be for sale at both places at which tickets are sold, and will be sent by mail to any address. Price 50 cents; by mail, 60 cents.

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